

The Social Studies

Continuing

THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK

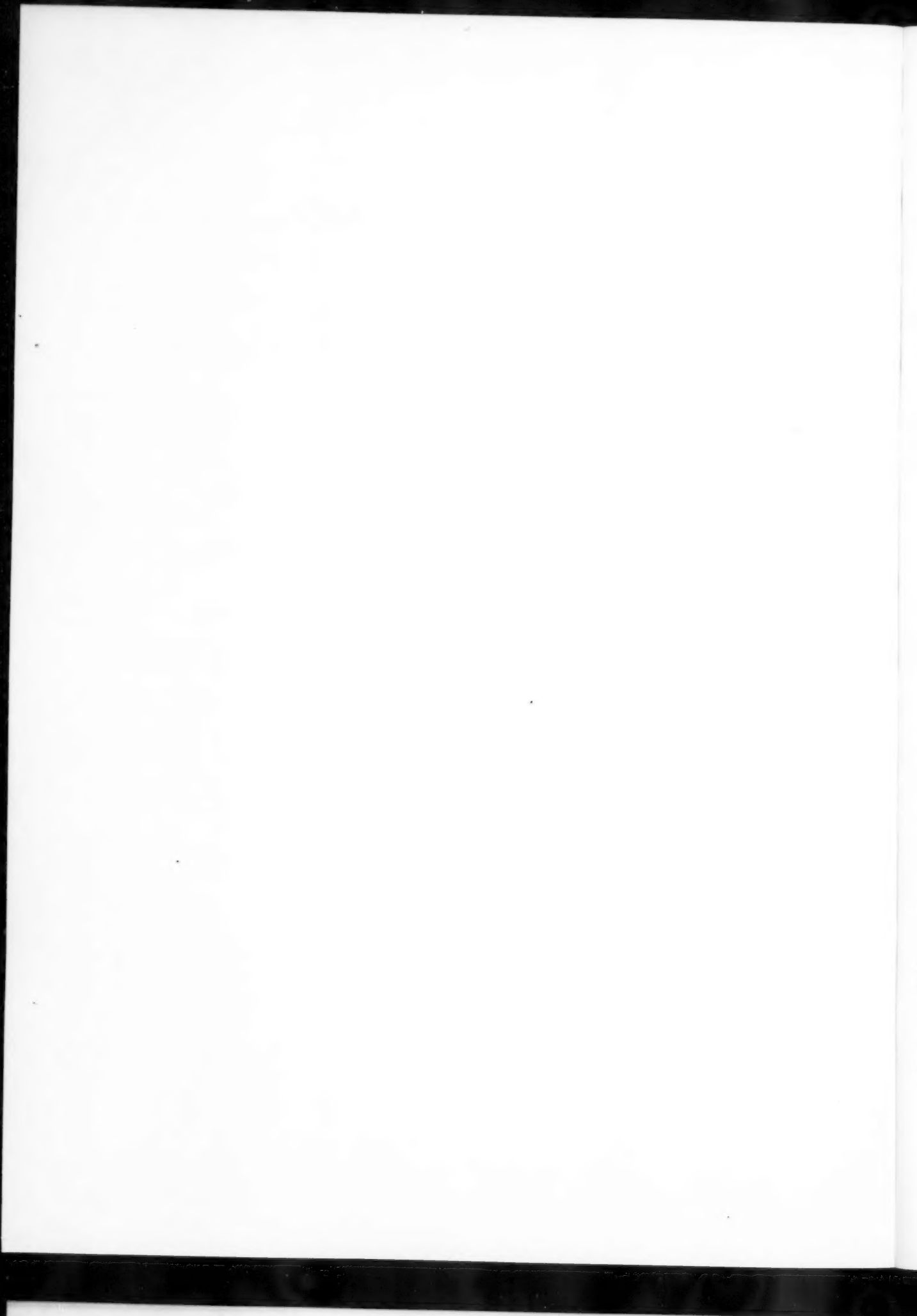
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Contents

The Social Studies—a Slogan or a Service	George M. Wiley	3
A Sesquicentennial Meditation	Leila R. Custard	6
Latin Visits the Social Studies	William J. Chapitis	11
The Supreme Court and the Constitutional Convention	Ralph B. Guinness	17
The Case for a Nation-Wide Interchange of Secondary School Instructors	A. Franklin Ross	19
Local History in Junior College American History Courses	Melvin Gingerich	21
The Motion Picture Study Period	Robert B. Nixon	22
Illustrated Section		23
Geographical Concepts in American History Textbooks	Meredith P. Gilpatrick	28
The Teacher and the Peace Movement	Carl G. Winter	32
The Youth Forum As a Means of Teaching Civics	George H. Slappey	33
News and Comment	Morris Wolf	34
Book Reviews and Book Notes	J. Ira Kreider	39
Current Publications Received		48

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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXX, NUMBER 1

JANUARY, 1939

The Social Studies—a Slogan or a Service

GEORGE M. WILEY

Associate Commissioner of Education, Albany, New York

We are given to slogans. A phrase catches the eye or the ear and becomes the watchword of the mob. It necessitates no thinking. We join in the war cry and are soon on the march. A slogan has little force where thinking is essential. It is seldom applicable to the individual. It means little except in terms of the crowd.

In some respects the slogan is applicable to our situation. There is sometimes too much of the psychology of the mob even among groups of educators. The technique of advertising is used to call attention to the latest educational devices, and to these pages with their graphic illustrations and phrases the pseudo-educator turns, rather than to the philosophy and the method of the round table.

There are three steps in the development of instructional materials which we may note briefly in passing. There is first the necessity of analyzing our thinking in terms of the philosophy underlying our educational program, which makes it important to prepare a statement that will clarify one's thinking relative to the functions of secondary education. We are fairly clear as to the democratic approach which we are making and the implications of the social studies underlying our thinking.

As a second step working toward the development of instructional materials, it is important to state clearly our thought as to the principles governing curriculum planning. It is in this area that we find ourselves notwithstanding the fact that in the state of New York our subcommittees have already gone far in clearing the atmosphere as to the fundamental

basis of curriculum organization. The core materials which have been outlined in our program are based upon the functions which we have already accepted.

In the work that is now being done by our social studies committees, we are face to face with the third step of this process. This has to do with the determining and selection of units of instruction or guides for the selection or choice of materials that may best be used for classroom teaching.

Of all curriculum problems, the materials which constitute the basic instructional units in social studies present the greatest difficulties. These problems will not be solved by slogans. They will be solved only in terms of our fundamental social philosophy.

Fortunately, extensive experimental work has been going on in the secondary schools of our state during the past few years. This is an outgrowth of the studies which have been made by the high school principals of the state in relation to secondary school problems. The work that is now being done in social studies could not have been carried on without the basic work which has been done by these committees.

The wide discussion on the part of teachers and principals relative to the curriculum which is now emerging in the progressive secondary schools of the state has pointed out the experimental steps through which these curriculum readjustments are being developed. It is obvious that any curriculum for public secondary schools which serves the needs of all pupils of high school age must stress in a new

and vital manner the importance of social studies.

School people and groups of citizens interested in the program of public education sense the necessity for a closer relationship between the school and the community. Our social needs must be interpreted more intelligently and any program of social studies must be developed with this need as a major consideration. In fact, the social studies laboratory is all about us.

Two years ago a questionnaire relative to the teaching of social studies in secondary schools was sent out to all of the teachers of social studies. These forms were returned by 3,327 teachers. The inquiry requested the opinions of teachers on seven basic phases of a social studies program, the *first* of which called for the opinion of the teachers relative to the scope of the social studies; *second*, objectives; *third*, differentiation of materials for pupils of varying interests or backgrounds; *fourth*, correlation between social studies and other subjects; *fifth*, fusion—materials to be treated as a field or divided into separate subjects; *sixth*, elective courses; *seventh*, materials suggested for (a) junior high school level, (b) senior high school level.

The reaction of these 3,327 teachers to the inquiry under item one as to what subject should be included in the field of social studies included a wide area which in its compass should satisfy every range of thought.

Of the 1500 questionnaires which were studied in detail in answer to this question, the several subjects or areas mentioned to be included within the scope of social studies covered: history 1786 (different histories mentioned by some teachers), civics 1192, geography 1145, economics 1026, sociology 550, economic citizenship 357, current problems 279, government 245, guidance 132, English 65, ethics 56, and many others with the number ranging from this list to one.

It is interesting to note that we find the scope of the social studies thus broadly interpreted as an inclusive area for the secondary curriculum. In many respects the opinions of the teachers of this state coincide quite fully with the report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. The scope of social studies as interpreted through the opinions of the teachers in both junior and senior high schools throughout the state is challenging in its compass and indicates something of the richness of materials that must be made available to attain the desired objectives.

What are the basic objectives in the teaching of social studies as expressed by this same group? The statements of teachers relative to the objectives of the social studies cover a wide range of items which, nevertheless, have been grouped under certain common denominators. These objectives have to do with

a few fundamental aims, with, however, a wide range of expression and phrasing.

Character and citizenship loom large in the responses of the teachers as to the major objectives of the social studies program. Items which have fallen within these classifications appear 718 times. The importance of *individual responsibility* and *social cooperation* which relate to the place of the individual in the social group was mentioned 362 times. The manner in which this relationship is emphasized in the thinking of teachers throughout the state is significant.

To understand the past for the purpose of sensing *trends* in more adequately understanding the present was mentioned 322 times. Tolerance as an objective was mentioned 250 times; the importance of understanding present environment, 248 times; understanding thoroughly the problems of government and improvement of government, 231 times; the development of proper social attitudes, 227 times; developing an appreciation of civilization, 127 times; understanding and solving social problems, 191 times; world interdependence and citizenship, 187 times.

Among the others mentioned were mental discipline, developing an understanding of economic systems, development of an appreciation of world peace (brotherhood), an appreciation of patriotism, understanding the present in order to deal with future problems, cultural values, understanding local history, together with other objectives such as self-expression, better use of leisure time, opportunities to develop personality and preparation for life work.

In any purposeful program that may be set up at the six year secondary school level for the attainment of these objectives through the use of the rich materials and experiences that are available in the broad scope of subjects and contacts already outlined, it is indeed quite necessary to make clear the significance of the meaning of the term *social studies* in the manner in which it is now being used under the new concept that must be given to it as the most significant area of core materials in the secondary school program.

In discussing the material and functions of the social studies, the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association in the volume *Conclusions and Recommendations* states:

1. The social sciences take as their province the entire range of human history, from the earliest times down to the latest moment, and the widest reaches of contemporary society, from the life and customs of the most remote peoples to the social practices and cultural possessions of the immediate neighborhood.

2. The social sciences thus embrace the traditional disciplines which are concerned directly with man and society, including history, eco-

nomics, politics, sociology, geography, anthropology and psychology. Each of these disciplines possesses an intrinsic nature and a core of substantial data and inferences, and yet all are intimately interrelated in their several approaches to a common goal—the knowledge of man and society.

3. Without wishing to emphasize what has been called "the conventional boundaries" between the several social disciplines—boundaries which have never been treated as rigid and which of late have been increasingly and very profitably cut across—the Commission repudiates the notion that any general or comprehensive social science has been created which transcends the disciplines themselves. Each of these branches of scholarship furnishes a distinctive point of view from which materials are surveyed and brought into an organization of knowledge; each contributes in its own way to general human insight into the world of man and society.

4. The main function of the social sciences is the acquisition of accurate knowledge of, and informed insight into, man and society; that of social science instruction is the transmission of such knowledge and insight, with attendant skills and loyalties, to the individuals composing society. Regardless of the special circumstances of a given time, these functions are vitally important and are likely to be effective in the measure of the breadth and depth of their conception, involving a real knowledge of man and society under most diverse conditions and circumstances.

"It is the function of history," says Finney¹ "to conserve and vitalize this continuity with the past by rendering it conscious, overt and functional." He expounds this thesis under four headings, the first of which he calls the "Sense of Perspective." He states, however, that this is a metaphor and therefore its meaning has to be explained. If we persist in analyzing the metaphor, he suggests that it will probably turn out to imply, among other things, the concept of social change. The second concept he emphasizes is that of trends, by which he refers to the direction of social change. He adds that "trend is a word that should occur frequently in the discussions of history classes, because it is of the utmost importance that the citizens of a democracy perceive the trends of their own times."

The teachers of our state now recognize the impossibility of realizing the objectives of secondary education through any program of social studies that is based on a mere lifeless treatment of the chrono-

logical facts of history. The traditional high school courses of study in this field placed great emphasis on factual data with little consideration to significant trends of social development or to the relationship of these trends to the vital, pressing social problems of the moment.

The vital objectives of secondary education will never be served by the old type courses in ancient, medieval, or modern history. These objectives will not be met by any chronological recital of the events of history. The attainment of these objectives in terms of citizenship and civic consciousness will be served only by a new approach in terms of modern social institutions and problems, with such a study and analysis of past trends, developments and influences as have resulted in the conditions or situations which confront the nation or the community today.

Those supervisors and principals who look for a complete pattern rather than for a guide in developing instructional materials are not satisfied even with a blazed trail, but rather insist in being carried over the route in a sedan chair. That day has probably passed.

A dynamic program of social studies will necessitate a new approach to historical, civic, social and economic materials in terms of problems which, in themselves, merit a major position in the school curriculum and which may be interpreted clearly only in the light of those trends which should challenge the purposeful thinking of all adolescent groups.

A social studies program consistent with the demands of the present day must be one that is organized on a general plan sufficiently flexible to enable teachers to adapt it to local conditions and to the needs of pupils making up the different types and groups in our cosmopolitan secondary schools.

Finally, we must not fail to pay tribute to the significant experimental laboratory work in the field of the social studies that is now being carried on by over a hundred secondary schools throughout our state. Work of this character makes a large contribution to the professional growth of the teachers immediately responsible for the project. The results of their work, when made available for discussion purposes with other groups, become a real challenge for further developments along similar lines in other schools and with other groups. The committees that have been working in the field of social studies on the junior and senior high school levels have profited richly by the contributions which have been made by these teachers and by the results of their thinking and of the laboratory work which they have been carrying on.

Nothing which the state may do through the publication of syllabus materials or guides in this field should be permitted to interfere in any way with

¹R. L. Finney, *A Sociological Philosophy of Education* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1928), Chapter XIV.

the further development of purposeful projects in various communities, through which the best thinking of the teachers may be drawn out and as a result of which the work may continue to become more and more efficient toward the attainment of the objectives which have been accepted as the aims of social studies instruction. This, in turn, should serve in large measure to make more resultful the work

of the secondary school program as a whole. It is this constant growth on the part of teachers together with the increasing opportunities for growth and development in both individual and social life on the part of these adolescent groups which must be the constant aim of all of our efforts in the better organization and adaptation of social studies for our secondary schools.

A Sesquicentennial Meditation

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To many thoughtful and conscientious men and women certain happenings in the world of today bring a deep sense of helplessness and futility. Therefore, if it is possible to put upon contemporary conditions any positive, heart-warming interpretation, by all means let us have it. And if the product of several rather unpromising and apparently disconnected factors seems to hold a happy suggestion, let us make the most of it.

Follow this combination, and see what it may have to offer. Three facts: the distress and humiliation of human personality suffered for a long time by the Jews of greater Germany and other countries of Europe; our own country's recent gesture of good-will and assistance, seen in its proposal that the inter-governmental refugee committee should convert itself into a permanent body competent to deal with all refugees from wherever they come; and the approaching sesquicentennial of our national Bill of Rights. What do these facts in combination hold for us of significance and assuagement?

Nothing to the pedestrian thinker, perhaps. Much to him who can and will ascend from his own sea-level of personal prejudice and emotion to a vantage point commanding long vistas of time and broad areas of space. Vastly more to the observer who brings to this experience a keen sense of the dramatic and an appreciation of subtler qualities, such as tragic irony and poetic justice.

By what trick of perspective can these three topics be seen in one and the same avenue through the centuries? And what joy can come with this vision? A gleam of satisfaction and a sense of the fitness of things begin to break upon the view of the true American when he finds the least common denominator of these three events. Let us seek it!

The saying of the word "rights" in itself opens a long vista into the past. It is quite appropriate that we Americans should very soon be looking back over the one hundred and fifty years of our life under

the Bill of Rights which became a part of our Constitution almost immediately after it went into effect in the year 1789. But in all fairness, we ought to offer our devout thanks at the shrines which mark the actual springs of thought on human rights and we should pay tribute to the people who originated the ideal of human liberty as well as to those who took the first steps toward its realization.

The recognition of this duty would carry our appreciation to James Madison and his associates, of course. From there the thread of thought would lead back through the colonial days to many a group of men who insisted that their rights as Englishmen must be respected. Thence across the Atlantic, to the mother country, with profound tribute to the Bill of Rights of 1689 and old Magna Carta of 1215. But we could not lay our wreaths on the meadows of Runnymede and come away feeling that we had reached the ultimate source of our Bill of Rights. Not if we have any respect for historical accuracy.

The quest carries us back to early Greek philosophy, where originated a theory that the source of law was in nature and reason rather than in authority of a humanly-established public organization. An early corollary to this was the belief that the individual possessed certain absolute, natural, and inalienable rights to life and liberty—rights which were antecedent to the formation of the state.

Even before this, the Hebrews in their best days had built their commonwealth on the ideal that all authority in law was derived from God and that the king was subject to this as much as was the humblest shepherd. The best Hebraic ideal of social organization assumed that the world is made for all and that the few are to be the servants of the many, the rulers are to work for the interests of all, as their greatest prophet had taught. Here is found the first statement of the rights of the individual.

In true perspective, then, we see ourselves in the debt of the Hebrews for the seminal idea from which

have blossomed the rights which we in America enjoy so freely and guard so carefully. And it should thrill us with genuine satisfaction to follow and, if we can, contribute to the success of the plan which the United States has presented to the group of European countries interested in coöperating to bring rescue and rehabilitation to the Jews who have suffered oppression in lands which are intolerant of human rights. In what more appropriate way could we celebrate the one hundred and fiftieth birthday of our Bill of Rights than by whole-heartedly endorsing and rejoicing in the idealistic yet eminently practical gesture our country has made by taking the lead in this humanitarian movement? And what more beautiful instance of poetic justice can the records of history or the realms of the imagination produce?

Perhaps the mills of the gods have been grinding overtime of late to afford us this unparalleled opportunity to give concrete expression to our joy in what we have received from the past—the past of the Hebrews in the beginning—and have preserved so preciously to the present. In so doing, these same mills have ground out also as grim an instance of tragic irony as any dramatist could conceive.

The elements of both the irony and the justice can be appreciated only as they are seen against their proper background—a background showing the whole sweep of the development of human liberties as summarized in the Bill of Rights which Americans should be now honoring. The source of the idea of rights has been indicated, and the matured product is fairly familiar to Americans. Let us recapitulate the story that lies between.

The Hebrew state was absorbed into the Roman Empire and their idea of human rights passed into Roman jurisprudence, but had there no transforming, vitalizing effect. Roman authority proceeded on the theory that had nothing in common with the Hebrew ideal of the commonwealth seeking to serve the general weal. The entire Roman organization—political, social, educational, religious, industrial, and moral—was framed and administered for the benefit of the few. Such share of good as the many obtained was incidental and indirect, not purposed and planned. Law was merely a rule handed down and enforced by a superior.

The history of Europe has been the story of the conflict of these two conceptions of life and ideals of social organization—the Hebrew and the Greek on the one hand, and the Roman on the other—and of the gradual triumph, through successive epochs and struggles, of the Hebraic social concept. It is as a force working under the banner of the Hebrew and Greek ideals that the bill of rights as a political instrument finds its place in the world scheme.

Carried into the literature of the Middle Ages, the basic principles of natural law and natural rights survived, while there developed at the same time the medieval conception of the Teutonic state as dualistic in form, prince and people opposing each other as independent factors in a state that rested on the idea of the relation of contract between the two. Since the rise of recognized estates, public law seemed to discern in the state a condition of contract between prince and people. The laws formed the content of the contract, and established the double condition of giving to the prince the right of demanding obedience, and to the people the right to require adherence to the limitations placed on both by the laws.

This conception of law as two-sided is a feature of all early English history. Magna Carta is a product of it; so is the Petition of Right. Both presented the "rights and liberties" of the subjects and the "laws and free customs of the realm" as passing from generation to generation—ideas which were brought to America as the "birthright" of the people.

England, the home of the most advanced and assured liberty, became the first and most promising battle-ground of Roman imperialism and Hebraic democracy. This land had never been truly subject to Roman imperialism. Her subjugation by the Normans had given her unity without destroying her people's spirit of independence. Here had been consummated an early and complete victory over the ecclesiastical authority which had succeeded to the pagan secular authority of the Roman Empire. And in England, growing out of the Reformation, developed a new power known as Puritanism, which was irreconcilable with the imperialism which still lingered on in England's government, industry, education, and religion.

Puritanism derived all its principles from the Hebraic. The Bible, their book, gave to the Puritans a conception of social equality, and also of spiritual equality. This was so radical, yet so firmly implanted in their purposes, that they were prepared to follow it whithersoever it might lead them. Ultimately, in England, it brought a deepening and broadening of the individual rights of Englishmen under the common law. More immediately, it led the extremists among these thinkers to the new world.

Thither they came, bringing their principles of civil liberty. These principles had been developed not as the result of abstract ideas of natural rights, but as products of the attempt of the nobility and people working together to weaken the prerogatives of the king, and to obtain guarantees of the privileges which experience had shown to be most necessary to individual development.

Here they concluded their compacts, which among the New England groups of settlers were felt to be

indispensable in founding communities. Their new circumstances, in the loneliness of primeval forests, were a force that strengthened their conviction that the sovereignty of the people is the basis of government. And they were firm in their belief that the compact, as the ultimate legal sanction of the community organization, was concluded only by virtue of each individual's absolute right. By making the compact they stepped out of "a condition of nature." And they were then equipped to rule themselves in civil affairs according to the laws, and to guard the liberty of the gospel.

Their sympathizers in England, the Levellers, made equally broad claims to the right of self-government, religious freedom, and the right of revolution. But they futilely fought the supreme strength of the established order. It was only in the new world of fresh beginnings that the Hebraic principles released by the Reformation, and worked out to their ultimate implication in Puritanism, could reach fulfillment. Whenever any right which the colonists conceived as theirs was threatened, a protest was forthcoming from their legislative body, declaring the rights, privileges, and immunities of natural-born subjects of England. Or when general laws were to be drawn up, as in Massachusetts in 1641; or when a new colony started on its career, as in the Jerseys or Pennsylvania; or when a different administration took over affairs, as in New York in 1683—then men seized upon the occasion to enumerate their rights, and produced a Body of Liberties, or a Charter of Liberties, or an agreement "for the better security of the proprieties of all the inhabitants."

To a greater or less extent, all the colonists demanded two types of rights: certain ones claimed as theirs by inheritance as Englishmen; and certain others not of this sort, which had never been conferred but were inherent in the nature of man himself. Of these natural rights, the first and most important were those that New Hampshire cited as an example of rights "in their very nature unalienable, because no equivalent can be given or received for them"—the rights of conscience.

The struggle for religious liberty has been given the whole credit, indeed, for bringing into existence the claim to inalienable rights exercised as higher powers not conferred, but inherent in the nature of man. And in the largest sense this is probably a correct view. He who looks at things from the high vantage point of world-development must agree in the main with the conclusion that:

The idea of legally establishing inalienable, inherent and sacred rights of the individual is not of political but religious origin. What has been held a work of the Revolution was in reality a fruit of the Reformation and its struggles. Its first apostle was not Lafayette but Roger Wil-

liams, who, driven by powerful and deep religious enthusiasm, went into the wilderness in order to found a government of religious liberty.¹

This point of view must not blind us, however, to the preponderating influence of economic antagonisms between colonies and mother country. These brought about the final transformation of the declaration of rights into an instrument of fundamental, vital, and driving importance in government. In the eighteenth century, political and economic differences pressed more and more into the foreground. Under this stress, both the inherited rights and liberties, and the privileges of government which had been granted to the colonists by the king—while not changing in content or expression—now became rights which sprang not from man, but from God and nature. Declarations of rights now covered the claims of the colonists as men, Christians, and citizens.

After 1763, declarations were enunciated by congresses, representing the colonies collectively, appealing to England's sense of justice. But none of these would ever have been very inspiring examples for European peoples suffering under oppression. None of these had the expansive force that could have caused a month's discussion in a French Constituent Assembly. All of them had been leading up, however, to one that varied the continuity and started bills of rights upon a new and vastly more significant course—the Virginia Bill of Rights of May, 1776. The appeal to England's law had disappeared. The backward look was gone. This Virginia declaration was law. It solemnly recognized rights pertaining to the present and to future generations as the basis and foundation of *government*. The constitution of Virginia was patterned according to its specifications, for it not only announced the old rights, but also other liberties of the citizen and the broad general principles of popular government.

The rights of the creators of the state, the sovereign people, were first established. And then followed the statements of the rights of the thing which the sovereign people were creating: the government of the commonwealth. Above all, the Bill of Rights, which came to form the first portion of nearly every constitution since framed, was intended to draw a distinct boundary line. This separated the rights of the individual—possessed in his own nature as a man, inalienable and indefeasible—and the power of the state which was being fashioned by the people in their sovereign capacity. It defined the sphere of rights of the individual which was inviolable by the state.

Through the troublous days of the Revolution and

¹ Georg Jellinek, *The Declaration of the Rights of Man and of Citizens* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1901), p. 77.

of adjustment to independent life, the new instrument called the Bill of Rights continued to function. And at this point it was carried over into the life of Europe as a living, vibrant political implement that was proving its practicality and offering promises for the future.

The influence of American bills of rights has not been limited by either national or racial bounds. Liberty's principles breathe in an expansive element that brooks no confinement. As early as 1778, a French translation of the Revolutionary state constitutions, dedicated to Franklin, had appeared in Switzerland. And in 1783, Franklin himself had published and spread throughout France the constitutions of the several states, the Declaration of Independence, and other papers relating to American affairs. Thus there began to seep through French society the principles which, during the early months of 1789, emerged in pamphlets asking for a declaration of rights for France, and giving as models those of America. These thoughts later appeared in the *cabiers* and in the model Declaration of Rights drawn up by enlightened men like Mirabeau, Condorcet, Sieyès, and others. Finally they became the foundation of the work of the Assembly, the *Declaration des Droits de l'Homme et du Citoyen*.

For, after due allowance is made for the fact that the Constituent Assembly spent more than a month discussing the rights of man, and that they had before them more than a score of drafts for consideration, it is clear that the French Declaration of Rights was for the most part inspired by the Bills of Rights of Virginia, Massachusetts, and Maryland. Detailed comparisons bring out striking parallelisms.

The fact that American states developed peacefully under the same principles which caused severe disorders in France merely indicates the different circumstances existing in the two countries. Critics of the French experiment in democracy always reproached it with what they considered the impertinent act of transposing from a small inconsequential country which had no past, a vague program which could not be applied to a great monarchy.

In truth, Americans in using bills of rights had gone on building upon deeply-based foundations; they progressed under the inspiration of a new institution consciously adapted from an old, familiar model. They were evolving inherited traditions, not breaking away from their past. The French, on the contrary, had torn up the foundations of their old political structure, and were trying to rebuild according to American specifications. The ancien régime could not peacefully be transformed to agree with revolutionary principles which in America were merely the recording of changes and tendencies already consummated. French leaders sought to give their people what they did not have; American leaders

merely proclaimed as perpetual that which they had already tried and found good. In America, the institution preceded and the declaration followed. In France, the principles were recognized first; but the corresponding institutions had yet to be created from the materials of a hostile past.

The principles of 1776 had become the principles of 1789. Thence, under the influence of the French declaration, there were introduced into almost all of the constitutions of the other continental states similar enumerations of rights, with separate phrases and formulas more or less adapted to the particular conditions, and therefore frequently exhibiting wide differences in content. In Germany, most of the constitutions of the period before 1848 contained sections upon the rights of subjects.

An attempt made by the German National Assembly in 1848 did not succeed. That group of sincere leaders meeting at Frankfort, wishing first to determine the rights of the individual, drew up a declaration of the fundamental rights of the German people. This was published on December 27, 1848, as federal law. They had tried to settle what a state not yet founded should not be allowed to do, and what it should concede. There lay the fatal mistake. In a resolution of August 23, 1851, the Bund declared these rights null and void. But their influence was not dead, because many of these specifications were incorporated almost verbatim into the federal law of the Germany that came into existence within two decades.

The Prussian constitution of January 31, 1850, and the Austrian "Fundamental Laws of the State" of December 21, 1867, had sections on the general rights of the citizen. The constitutions of the North German Confederation of July 26, 1867, and of the German Empire, April 16, 1871, were noteworthy exceptions, since they entirely lacked any paragraph on fundamental rights.

The constitutions of the new states of the Balkans, made before the World War, incorporated paragraphs on fundamental rights. More interesting, however, to the citizens of that nation which entered the great war "to make the world safe for democracy" are the new constitutions of European states that bear the date of 1919 or after, sad as it may be to contemplate the utter collapse of most of them before the present dictatorship phase of their history.

The German constitution of 1919 devoted Chapter II to "The Fundamental Rights and Duties of Germans," and organized the details into sections under the following captions:

- I The Individual
- II Community Life
- III Religion and Religious Societies
- IV Education and Schools
- V Economic Life

Each section contained many subdivisions. Many familiar rights and liberties were guaranteed, but it must also be stated that many loopholes were prepared for exceptions "by authority of law." Privileges of birth and rank were abolished. Motherhood was protected. The care of the youth was made the special task of the state. Labor was put under the special protection of the commonwealth. The exploitation of natural resources was controlled by the state, which could also supervise the distribution and use of land. A strong spirit of duty to the state and of nationalism suffused the whole.

No bill of rights is found in the Prussian constitution of 1920, nor in Austria's of the same year, though under the chapter on General Provisions were several subjects of a bill of rights nature.

In Czechoslovakia's constitution of 1920, Section V was entitled "Rights, Liberties and Duties of the Citizen," and was divided into subtitles on: Equality; Personal Freedom and Freedom of Property; Domestic Liberty; Freedom of the Press; The Right of Free Assembly and Association; The Right of Petition; Postal Inviolability; Liberty of Instruction and of Conscience; Liberty of Expressing Opinion; Marriage and Family; and Military Service. Yugoslavia had an article of eighteen sections called "The Fundamental Rights and Duties of Citizenship." Poland called her article "General Duties and Rights of Citizens."

The constitution of the Free and Hanseatic City of Danzig labelled Part II as "Fundamental Rights and Duties" and its forty-four sections were grouped to treat of: Individuals; Public Servants; Religion and Religious Associations; Education and Schools; Economic Life. Esthonia listed twenty-one "Fundamental Rights of Esthonian Citizens." Finland's constitution of 1906 enumerated the "General Rights of Constitutions Protection of Finnish Citizens."

Belgium in her constitution of 1831, amended in 1893 and 1921, gave over Title II to Belgian Citizens and their Rights. And the first heading of an Italian constitution of 1848, copied largely from the French one of 1830, read: "Of the Rights and Duties of Citizens." But present French fundamental law, which dates back to 1873, consists—for good and sufficient historical reasons too long to detail here—only of a series of organic acts; and the first espouser of the Bill of Rights in European history now has no such instrument in her constitution.

Even Russia has taken over the idea of the bill of rights though in her own characteristic fashion. Section I of the Constitution of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic bears the title: "Declaration of Rights of the Laboring and Exploited People." Its eighteen articles proclaim the rights of international workers, define "the conditions of the liberation of the toiling masses from the yoke of capital," and chart the course "until the final victory of the

international workers' revolt against the oppression of capital." No rights are recognized as belonging to "exploiters" or to the "parasitic strata of society" but the "absolute resolve" is expressed "to liberate mankind from the grip of capital and imperialism." Strange fruit indeed this is, produced in an environment quite alien to its source!

But in spite of all this evidence of the influence of American bills of rights, it must be remembered that European bills of rights do not, as do American ones, mark off a sphere in which the liberties of the individual are protected against violation not only by other individuals, but even by government or any of its subordinate parts. For it is true that:

In our land alone can the humblest citizen whose rights are violated, by individuals or by government or by so-called law, go alone into court and get redress against the individuals and protection or punishment against the official, even if against the State; and even to an annulment of a law that oppresses him, if counter to the great Charter of our land.²

European countries whose laws derive from Roman law have a whole body of privileged law or administrative law devised for the use of government functionaries alone. From this, ordinary citizens are excluded. In Germany, the case has been in the past that if any one is injured under pretense of government authority, he cannot resist or sue in the ordinary courts, because government authorities are above the law.

Contrast, if you please, American and English enjoyment of *habeas corpus* privileges with the situation in Germany and other continental countries which have nothing like this. There a man may not question it if he is taken into custody by government in any of its capacities; it is not for him to reason why. But European bills of rights do erect governmental safeguards around individual rights—domestic, religious, educational, economic, personal, and political—and do protect them from invasion by other individuals or groups of persons.

The cycle of the bill of rights as a political institution is now complete. Its final arc has carried the matured fruit back to Europe, the source of its germinal ideas. Back across the wide stretches of ocean had traveled the fully-evolved political organism. But the most important phase of its life and evolution has occurred in a remote land, a new continent that might well be regarded as the only environment in which conditions were favorable for the great transformation. Let the German historian Jellinek express for us what this means to Europe. He says:

² F. J. Stimson, *The American Constitution as it Protects Private Rights* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1923), p. 15.

It is under the influence of this document that the conception of the public rights of the individual has developed in the positive law of the states of the European continent. Until it appeared public law literature recognized the rights of heads of states, the privileges of class, and the privileges of individuals or special corporations, but the general rights of subjects were to be found essentially only in the form of duties on the part of the state, not in the form of definite legal claims of the individual.³

Whether the present eclipse of the individual and his rights in the dictator-ruled countries of Europe is but a passing phase or a permanent cessation of

progress along the path that America had been pointing out, will require a much longer future perspective to determine. At any rate, here, in the oppression of members of a race that helped originate the ideal of human rights—oppression at the hands of peoples who had once caught the gleam shining from the land of fulfillment and deliberately extinguished it from sight—here is material for some modern Aeschylus who can rise above the limitations of the classic unities and work on a world stage, at home in every age of human development. And if he could have in addition the gift of prophetic vision, true Americans could have no dearer or deeper wish than that they might see themselves forever as conservators of human values and guardians of individual rights down through many more sesquicentennials of their precious Bill of Rights.

³ Georg Jellinek, *The Declaration of the Rights of Man and of Citizens*, pp. 2-3.

Latin Visits the Social Studies

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Love of material abundance determines the shibboleths of an age in which labor-saving devices of all sorts create myriads of things and at the same time take away from too many people the only way they ever had of earning things—manual labor with almost no accompaniment of mental activity. Double feature movie programs, plus bank nights, plus jack pots, plus chinaware, plus other material inducements—all for the price of the former single feature presentation, seem indispensable for attracting people to the theaters. Double-headed cones of ice cream for five cents draw the children into the refreshment parlors. In the very purchase of necessities, the shopper is told that if he buys a certain article at the usual price, he will receive another free. This same madness has encompassed even our schools. Administrators give taxpayers some satisfaction each autumn by playing up the increase in registration. This same atmosphere has crept into the individual classrooms. Quantity—and quantity predominantly—seems to be the criterion for evaluating the doings of a classroom in too many of our once simply, yet substantially, organized little red schoolhouses. With the horizontal elaboration and expansion out of proportion with the vertical, education is now hardly scratching the surface of a mine whose potential shaft is a deep one. Thus the very heart and intrinsic purpose of instruction drop into the discard, at least temporarily.

As an instructor, whose daily duties include three Latin classes, I find myself virtually a teacher of another department of the social sciences. Latin definitely carries rich social values for the more subtle;

and since these values are not immediately evident, their crystallization may often be retarded for a long time, even beyond commencement. Hardly an episode of Latin arises but that its fuller understanding results after the class has created a setting by interpreting the relevant social, commercial, industrial, and legislative phases of the passage under consideration. Since the Roman Empire in its heyday encompassed the entire Mediterranean world, it unified in a single government and language the divergences and variety of topography and geography, commerce, industry, climate, temperament, customs, and languages.

Oneness of language, in spite of its dialects, is in itself substantial evidence of existing or past national unity and organization. Certainly, such an empire that was, such an empire whose beginning and end the student knows, offers a ready model for comparison, contrast, or example to one considering modern events. The proper rendition of the language of such an empire allows the student to sense the social, circumstantial, geographical, and psychological peculiarities of a race. The very sound and figurative import of the idiomatic language of any people give the student an intimate insight into the life of the people, for idiomatic expression is but the reflection of current doings. *To carry coals to Newcastle* is British; *to strike out* carries meaning to the American ear; *to throw a sop* or *to close the gates of Janus* brings Rome to mind; while *it never rains but that it pours* could hardly have taken root in Arizona, or *to break the ice* in Ceylon. Since language is one of the more vital social instruments of humans, its wider and more

thorough knowledge, in turn, inevitably enhances a student's consideration of social problems in terms of his own vernacular. Even if those who can sense these elements are comparatively few, their influence over many is undeniably valuable enough to encourage an intensive participation in Latin, the basis of most of the modern languages taught in our schools.

Consequently, like many another teacher interested in the social sciences by profession and enthusiasm, I have been impartially watching the presentation of the subjects exclusively called the social studies. Many genuine teachers are doing enough for the benefit of those in their trust to foster hope and encourage us to devote hours to a wider dissemination of our findings. But, on the other hand, since most of the social subjects are required, many teachers, certain of large enrollments, begin to slump into that dangerous state in which humans take for granted things in general. Before long they give only passing and general treatment to the very subjects in their charge. This is one of those very things which placed the teaching of Latin in its present precarious situation.

Formerly, Latin teachers, likewise certain of relatively large classes, allowed their departments to grow top-heavy with numbers and to develop a general pattern for all. Individual and technical needs and benefits received scanty attention. Time-worn platitudes rebounding from the four walls of the Latin room collided one with another and fell to the floor helplessly with seldom a creak in sympathy. Without being challenged occasionally by external agencies to any extent, scores of classical groups retired into a self-contained security and satisfaction, not in the active exclusion of other academic interests, but in the contemplation of what Latin had been able to do in the past whose sun had set with no further warming glow for a larger number. Since the reports of the Classical Investigation, alert teachers have been having a most strenuous time to adjust Latin to current needs. If the teaching of all other subjects has improved proportionately, then educators may feel certain of progressive strides. Latin teachers, however, are still endeavoring to win back the public favor which the revised approaches really deserve.

The exponents of the social studies must become universally aware of the fact that, if large classes are to be exposed to their subjects, the real potential students may be held down to the standards that the many will set for themselves. It takes unusual diligence in the social studies to see if something definite is developing in each individual, when in the presence of numbers it is so easy for the many to contribute only the self-evident or unfounded opinions and to rely indifferently on a few to carry the substantial burden. The standards of the latter decline rapidly once they sense the absence of true endeavor, for most of us, especially the younger, are competitors by

nature and not those who aspire energetically toward the ideal of the best possible self with personally created incentives. If young people are permitted to travel at their own rate, and this occurrence is almost inevitable in the presence of unwieldy numbers, the young people will move more and more slowly until they are at a standstill or only marking time. Leaders in the social sciences must make secondary school teachers aware of the fact that they must not glory blindly in the numbers enrolled in their classes, but that they must look for the true worth of their subjects in the development of as many individuals as possible in terms of their peculiar needs and contributions to the entire group. Otherwise, when the social studies are thrown into the balance by those investigations that often come unexpectedly, these subjects, too, may be found wanting just as Latin was recently. Recovery from such a sudden awakening is not the easiest thing for the constitution of any body. In the February number of the *Classical Journal* for the current year, Professor Fred S. Dunham cites from William Feather's "The Pull of the Printed Word," *Atlantic Monthly*, May, 1936, that what a certain 250,000 think and say makes a great deal of difference in this country. The wide-awake teacher knows that at least ten per cent of his students may be trained to appreciate worth-while thinking and interpretation, even if very few of these can do any original reasoning. The influence of this ten per cent should set the ideals and standards for progressive schools. It is right here that the social studies can do a service of vital import to any educational institution.

Once people have some assurance about food, shelter, and clothing in a certain degree of luxuriousness, they present another paradox in that they look for a panacea, for some one thing to take care of everything. Some educators (too often in almost total isolation from the actual classroom proceedings) have been looking for such a single thing to do the educating, until now they have rallied to the social sciences to provide that pedagogical panacea. I am absolutely sure that the thinking champions of the social studies are not so rash as to intend such a course for their subjects. It appears that one of the real duties of the social studies is not to exclude all other studies not belonging to their family, but to evaluate and interpret any human endeavor in its true, intrinsic light. But the way in which the social studies are conducted so often reminds me of the medicine which spell-binding itinerants used to sell from their kerosene-lighted wagons stationed at the corners of the side-streets. Invariably, the directions on the bottle listed some fifteen to thirty common ailments which the contents of that one and the same bottle would dispel. Hasty and unsystematic teachers of the social subjects, and they are numerous, encourage their pupils in a sort of superficial talking about anything

and everything with little or no information beyond thinly and widely outstretched hearsay. Such teachers find an easy escape from the dread of otherwise becoming unpopular with their pupils. Amid his lispig gusto, the puny school boy glories in finding himself permitted to stand in the position of an authority on the Chinese situation today, Mussolini's policy tomorrow, and the World Court on the third day! Or better still, he economizes by taking care of all three problems on the same day!

Before long, an atmosphere of sensationalized exaggeration pervades the classes. People, especially the young and uninformed, experience a false inner strength and superiority when they can trip up and see others in a derogatory and character-destructive setting. Many teachers, perceiving this source of appeal, urge on the wholesale exposé of questionable episodes in commerce, industry, society, and government. For the pupils, here is classroom glory added to what excites them in the pulp magazines of crime and detective narratives. During a period of most sensitive plasticity, the pupils soon acquire a negative attitude toward all human undertakings in public service. It is not in our jurisdiction to end or to limit classroom exposés. But for the good of the social studies, educators must insist on a positive approach if our young people are to grow up with respect for human dignity and regard for their country's past achievements and future possibilities. If teachers must resort to exposé, then let them see to it that the pupils produce a positive counterpart as the result of guided and organized study. It is one of the duties of the social studies teacher to lead his pupils to see a better possible future solution in the light of example from a similar past situation.

In such a state of affairs, young students, not anxious to exercise industriousness, and certain teachers, ever on the lookout to ride the crest of student popularity, wax unwittingly enthusiastic. When students are permitted to lick off the thin sugar coating and cast away the substantial contents, why would not any such course win a signal victory over those subjects which of their very nature are exacting and demand organization for noticeable progression—Latin, natural science, mathematics, and social studies properly conducted? Adequately presented subjects will train individuals to handle things in complete, systematic units and provide the supporting framework; whereas, the social sciences, as they are taught too often, supply the student with scattered, fragmentary bits of hearsay, suitable possibly only for footnoting the organized and definite pages or oral presentation of a certain small number who learn thoroughness in all the other courses of their own selection. This situation is most evident when some well-informed person is conducting a discussion and some hearsay-instructed listener, in his enthusiasm

to display occasional mental registration, interrupts with "The other day I heard on the street corner . . ."

The social subjects, to be taught properly, demand the exercise of organized and thorough approach in their particular interpretations just as Latin does in matters of thought transference or mathematics in the representation of numerical values. Otherwise, the classroom procedure hardly goes beyond the casual conversations at the corner soda fountains in the towns and around the pot-bellied stoves of the general stores in the villages. Both educational and financial economics cannot justify such a state of affairs too long. Should the social subjects supplant the others, as some predict, the change would occur because, in the transition, the proof would come from those with the habits of organization acquired in the exacting subjects. What then? The weaknesses may escape detection in an ordinary testing, for the pupil may betake himself to free hearsay, but in Latin and mathematics there is no such haven provided intermittently by externally passing agencies.

In the minds of those who have social vision, the social studies are not endeavoring to exclude Latin and mathematics any more than the latter are attempting to keep the former from their rightful places. After a true analysis of the situation, the educator will discover that the social subjects are truly reaching out to include the languages and mathematics in their proper setting. If the social studies are intended to train people for purposeful living with one another, how then can they exclude language and all the aids for its effective development, when language is the universal vehicle for social transactions? Let us hope that there are none hurling firebrands at the study of Latin only to camouflage their erstwhile inability to benefit by it.

Dilemmatic as it may seem, many object to Latin because what Latin really has to give is in Latin, and the chief reason why Latin can supply its benefits is that what it has to offer is in Latin. Just as one's understanding of arithmetic is better after a course in algebra or calculus, and as one's readiness in chemistry is improved by the study of physics, so is his use of his own vernacular more definite after an intensive adherence to a foreign language, particularly Latin because of its graphic organization and direct influence on English. Time and again, the treatment of the social studies so easily swerves into politics (of the disparaging category) that almost all the students glow in the contemplation of seeing themselves as prospective politicians to direct all others in the avenues of public service. Should such a world ever materialize, it would be like a society of chauffeurs without automobiles to drive. The competent social studies directors are well aware of the fact that they must foster more individual interests than ever before if people are to find happiness in a society so easily

tempted from self-reliance by a multiplicity of standardized doings to be had for the mere turning of a radio dial.

Setting up the ordinary mental capacity as a minimum norm, let us look at the argument about the economy of time in education. For the past ten years I have had close contact with young Europeans who come to America for study, usually to major in economics and business administration. It is not at all strange to find them better informed on literature than many of our graduate school majors in English. They appear more diplomatic and can stand on their own without embarrassment when occasion arises for any form of representation. They may seem reserved for some time, for they make it a point to regard one another's background and personal developments. Socially they are interesting because of a peculiar subtlety, even after their newness gives way to familiarity. They play tennis as well as the Americans and dance as gracefully. They may not at first be as conversant on American football and baseball; yet, after attending several games, they can appreciate the playing of the individual, since they have the developed faculty of observing systematically. In science, philosophy, psychology, art, music, economics, and literature, student for student in the middle stratum of society, the European is better informed than the American. The former shows a keener understanding of those interests we call the social studies.

Whether it is the ever-present uncertainty of affairs in Europe that makes the people develop their individualities, even though dictators dominate them politically, they certainly reach out for the substantial things which result in self-confidence and social security in the individual, if he cannot find it in his surroundings. Since the United States does not have numerous small countries on all its sides, the social science educators could consider this problem to see what similar stimuli the Americans might have to study and experiment for the upbuilding of greater self-reliance. After viewing all this, we learn that in the humanistic gymnasias of Europe the students still study Latin for seven or eight years and Greek for four or six. Granted that fewer from below the middle class generally attend the gymnasias and the colleges, the American group of the corresponding social and mental level receives hardly two years of Latin, for it must save time for the practical, the useful things. If the European group is smaller and of the leader class, then our smaller division of the leader class will benefit by similar training. We cannot continue to let the critical and non-creative majorities determine what the standards or materials should be in the training of the individuals who will eventually guide society. When all is said and done, how can the American as an individual account for the time he

"saved" by avoiding the classics or taking only a minimum?

Perpetuation of the cultural and the dynamic qualities, socially and practically useful, is an uncertain by-product of inheritance in the ordinary sense. Legal inheritance gives the heir the security forthcoming from the material accumulations of his elders; inheritance generally does not give the developed means of acquiring one's own continued security. One of the most observant men of all times was sadly disappointed because his son was unable to observe closely. We do not mean, however, that a son should acquire a successful father's dynamic personality and cultural accomplishments, nor that he should immerse himself totally in his father's particular field of endeavor. The old saying, "from shirt sleeves to shirt sleeves in three generations," may be borrowed from its place in monetary affairs to be applied to mental and individual development. A father may work and study devotedly to round out his character for greater services. The offspring, enjoying the fruits of his father's efforts without any appreciable effort on his own part, often fails to understand the source of the things which he happens to enjoy by accident of birth. After squandering the eventual inheritance of material goods and living on his father's reputation, he hands down practically nothing more than the memories of an energetic grandfather to his own son who grows without even a parental model for practicing to acquire the habits of self-application. A true parent or relative of the family might instruct the son through the details of daily guidance or present themselves as good examples so that the son may look on and sense the whence and the wherefore of his surroundings. With such a stimulus he may carry on in the interests, modifying things and methods to suit changes in his environment. At least, he might be the "historian" of an accomplished father's life and works to preserve and perpetuate the information that may influence and inspire others outside of his own family to carry on in the respective pursuit.

If we consider the coming generation as the son and the passing as the father, we have a similar situation in the Latin world. The present generation, not aware of the complete history of things, takes for granted the social enrichment which Latin influence has helped to effect. Why will not educators deplore the superficial instruction in literature and English expression when already we have numerous teachers whose minds are not rooted in those very things which are the source of much of our language and literature? This in itself provides a problem for the consideration of social forces, a problem worthy of the consideration of competent social science exponents.

Much of the adverse criticism in any walk of life

will always come from those who try to, and cannot commendably account for a long lapse of inactivity. They have vague notions that there is some purpose and genuine interest in life, but driven on by a lurking sense of social guilt, they impatiently rush forth for public recognition by grasping at some passing fad and riding on the band wagon. In the midst of many others like themselves, they discover a "sour grapes" haven where their superficial generalities are sufficient material for their mutual consolation activities. Since Latin and mathematics of their very natures require detailed and specific treatment, they are the subjects which the self-appointed critics will immediately brand as useless. A negative approach or attitude can never foster the positive things which an educational system strives to encourage in the students for better social adjustments. Social problems leaders could do a great service by substituting worth-while and wholesome activities to eliminate the negative defense mechanism of certain malcontents.

In their characteristic blindness, many of these outspoken critics talk as if Yale actually excluded Latin from its curriculum, when in reality Yale merely declared it an elective subject! One of their loudest objections to Latin is typical of the others: The reading of Caesar is not conducive to pacifism. On that same count, scores of modern literary pieces like *So Red the Rose* and *Gone with the Wind* must be forbidden, for they are based on a particular era in warfare. Again, the gruesome, realistic photographs in magazines like *Life*, portraying recent war mutilations, must be banned, if we heed the fashion-swayed objectors! No matter what slant is given war-time information, the social scientist knows right well that many will look on the narrative as a glorification of martial deeds. During the past 2,000 years warfare has been continually crude and awful; in our own age, science has supplied it with such instruments that there are no longer any non-combatants left in any country at war: just think of the bombings in Spain and China!

Any attempt to outlaw war by depicting its atrocities makes the fighting blood boil in the most peace-loving person. And what is this but a contradiction? How can wars end wars if they are wars in themselves? However, I firmly believe in letting people see the negative side of war, but at the same time I say that a homeopathic treatment for pacifism is not adequate. Leaders of vision in the social studies can perceive that true pacifism may be effected by guiding people to develop themselves in the things of genuine living, so that they may have a measure of sufficiency in themselves. It is then, and only then, that they can see the negative side of war as something actually negative. The ultimate causes of war are ever lurking

in each individual who is looking for a sufficiency almost exclusively outside of himself. The blare of the martial trumpet joins these many individuals in a seething mass, with each one groping for that sufficiency in a blind and only tradition-justified madness. Italy would hardly have gone armed into Ethiopia if the latter had had a reasonable amount of self-sufficiency in terms of world progress. Japan would not be forcing the vacating of territory with shells in China, if the Chinese were a nation of definitely progressive people. Germany did not attempt to march through Switzerland. Caesar himself would not have entered Gaul with his legions if he had had a self-sufficient race with which to deal. In each case the furtherance of industry, commerce, or national prestige could have been or could be carried out by means other than warfare. In the last analysis, wars arise because nations seem unable to respect the identity of one another; and how can a nation command respect in the eyes of the world if its citizens are deficient in those qualities which make for personal self-respect? As far as pacifism is concerned, this is the vital objective of the social studies.

Without a positive consciousness in our individuals, war history will just go on repeating itself. Most urgently the one-sided critic of Latin suggests the study of human interest literature interpreting the nature about us. Very well, is not there something continually recurrent in many of our most touching selections about how the flowers bloom the fairest on the graves of the heroes killed in martial combat? The cry against Caesar falls flat when we take other things into consideration. He, like any other man in a similar position before or after, was struggling for a guarantee of peace and prosperity which eventually took form in the Augustan Era. Unlike so many writers concerning battles, Caesar abides unswervingly by the classical postulate that killings should occur off-stage. Nowhere in the *Commentaries* will one find a glorified or sensationalized scene of gory carnage. The style of composition is chiefly that of résumé and recapitulation. Caesar explains maneuvers, but he omits the blood-warming details between the causes and the effects. If the bigoted pacifists overlook the historicity of any event, then all history as well as that of Caesar must be expurgated and so deprived of its chain of causality.

In the light of the same historicity, what more ennobling or less ignorable can be found in the perpetrations of present day dictators? Pupils read Caesar not because of its content alone; they read it because of its graphic and clearly defined Latin. If the truth be known, the objectors are struggling to clear their own conscience for never having applied themselves enough to gain some attention and recognition in Latin. Almost invariably with few exceptions, when

I find a pupil who cannot or will not do Latin beyond the nominative and accusative cases of the singular in the first declension, and beyond the first and third persons of the singular in the first conjugation, I can classify him as one never to be left for any length of time in an office even as a clerk whose routine requires constantly active and organized common sense. Latin calls for just that. How then will people rally to the cause of a subject which soon exposes them for what they actually are? Hearsay cannot supply Latin pupils with something "just for the sake of an answer" and a feeling of false self-consolation. Most of all, let the uninformed objectors see that the revised Latin texts of the first two years have comparatively little of Caesar and far more Latin material of direct social import. After all, it is not a matter of Caesar versus the pacifist, but of Caesar versus the passivist.

In my acquaintance with college bred men who have inherited businesses or made personal headway in industry, I have learned that they deplore their one-sided training. They realize that the many economics, business administration, or engineering courses were necessary to give them a thorough background in the matters of their respective fields; yet they assert that some of that time could have been devoted to the social and classical pursuits through the entire four years of college. Some of the time spent in experimentation and drill could well have been given over to cultural subjects, for these men mastered the technical procedures by actual practice in the midst of elders once they had stepped into professional life. Now that they have established themselves in reasonable comfort they find something lacking for the enrichment of their private leisure.

Many a thinking person's later days are spent in reminiscences of the past to give some interpretation to the sequence of events in his life. It is in these moments that a person glories internally in the things of personal human interest. Often he senses that his cultural development has been arrested, since he and other students like him missed the grounding of the earlier years. If culture is to be had it must be fostered over a long period of years, for true culture is in itself a thing of gradual growth. Moreover, the atmosphere of a group of students leisurely basking at intervals in literature or the social subjects can never be created for any continued period later in life. It is almost as ineffective as allowing a pupil who has been absent all through a series of classroom debates during a project on argumentation, to make up the unit by coming in one or two evenings after school; the classes can never be repeated for the pervading atmosphere effected in the presence of speakers, judges, and an audience. The principles and guides for cultural appreciation and social interpretation must be inculcated early in education to provide pegs on which to hang bits of enrichment from observa-

tions and experiences as the years glide by. It is thus that one may add the valuable individual touches to the traditional routine of his passage through this life. It surprises even Latin teachers to see how those who have had Latin delight in reminiscing over once familiar passages by way of the Loeb editions or such volumes as Pharr's *Aeneid* with the visible vocabulary.

Our literary exponents are interpreting phases of the social studies on an extensive scale through the media of the novel, short story, drama, and essay. Time and again the treatment of the material in a social subject depends on the meaning of the key words in the terminology employed. A person careless in the handling of words may do much harm to a social study through misrepresentation of thought. Latin of its very nature trains the conscientious student to regard the force of each important word and to get the psychological "feel of words" in various situations. Stuart Chase's recent book, *The Tyranny of Words*, in making a plea for semantics is quite concerned about the unscrupulous use of words throughout the English speaking world. The isolated study of a vernacular cannot prevent this verbal indifference satisfactorily, as we have already pointed out. Word precision is one of the items in which the revised Latin texts and courses are *per se* a part of a thorough program in the social studies.

Under duress of the democratic disillusionment in which all consider themselves equally privileged in all things, even natural endowments, Latin has to do one of three things: (1) cater to large numbers with a stringy and suicidal course; (2) give a thorough course fit for those naturally equipped for scholarship and so draw the condemnation of the many; or (3) offer a course of graduated levels to accommodate many according to degrees of ability and peculiarity of individual tendencies. Latinists are earnestly putting into practice the third alternative. A certain amount of the standard classics will always have to be used to give the pervading tone of the Roman; it is the supplementary materials which form the valuable transitions between Latin and the other subjects in terms of universal progressive modifications. We invite social studies teachers to borrow for examination the revised Latin texts occasionally to see just what is taking place. Otherwise, they may be led into embarrassment by being called on to express themselves concerning Latin without being informed on current procedures. There is no academic, social, or professional reason why any department, particularly that of the social studies, can afford to or should isolate itself and exclude all other academic ventures from its consideration. Isolation is often the beginning of the end; Latin is still paying dearly for its past smugness. The same can happen to any subject, but it never should. It would be helpful to invite broad-minded individuals to write of their experiences for journals of other academic divisions. An oc-

casional item from the social studies groups printed in some one of the classical publications or letters-to-the-editor columns may add a section to the pavement in the desired direction.

To encourage a mutual understanding and to avoid possible misrepresentations in both camps, I have thus outlined some of the Latin problems—problems which can easily confront the social studies. The decrees of the strongest central government are meaningless without the police power of the smallest village to put them into effect. The most proficient Latin scholars, juggling their realia and putting educational theory into practice at their headquarters, cannot disseminate their influence beneficially unless they have Latin teachers in the smallest schools giving a reasonable amount of conscientious treatment. The same holds true for the social studies, much of whose material is likewise subjective in content and effect. Many social studies teachers are quite bewildered themselves and are bewildering the young entrusted to them because they have no definite direction or core principles on which to attach and classify the mass of various bits of data swarming about daily, like locust visitations. Even if these teachers will not be reached on their own, social studies leaders must see to it that they are for the welfare of the subject. The influence of such teachers spreads detrimentally throughout all other parts of a school. Superficial dealings and just taking things for granted are coming to a head in our present society. Hollywood usually reflects the tempo of the nation; at present Hollywood's preoccupation with light comedy is a good forecast of, or a prelude to a more serious era of thoughtful diligence. Perhaps even the equivalent of Shakespearean drama on an extensive scale may become both fashionable and popular. Subjects like the social studies and Latin must be prepared to fit into that era of more mental regard, whether that regard be pretentious or genuine.

And finally, as brethren of the same large institution of education, if we expend our best energies in

mutual denunciations rather than in mutual attempts to effect an integrated approach in guiding the youth of our schools, we must realize that we eventually bring the opprobrium of the public upon ourselves with the harmful retardation of integrated growth in the youth. Latin may never be a subject for everybody. There are just as many enrolled in it who should not be, as there are outside of it those who should be. Since the social studies teachers meet all the pupils in a school, they can encourage the more capable to go into mathematics and Latin. Mathematics will sound the depths of reasoning in the conscientious and provide them with patterns for pointed thinking. Latin will fathom the verbal capacities in the same individuals to train them in careful word interpretations. Both of these mental functions will find materials in the social studies for reasoning and precise expression. Up to a certain point, the more mental challenge we can offer to those equal to it, the more will they enrich all the work they do. Regardless of what subjects we are conducting, their true value lies, not in the uncertain foundation of popular acceptance, but in that minority of pupils in whom the challenging subjects have sounded a resonance and a spreading influence over the majority, not vice versa. It appears to be another one of those circles: as goes thoroughness in the social subjects, so goes effectiveness in Latin and mathematics. Theoretical and flimsy opinions, notions, and conjectures, given as easily as they are obtained, must yield to substantial effects. In the long run, the best advertisement for a course is not a record enrollment, but each individual pupil in whom even his own parents can see an interesting and a satisfactory mental growth. . . .

We certainly hope that our visit has been a mutually beneficial one. There are times when the circulation of our interests is at such a low ebb that an earnest heart-to-heart conference injects the indispensable academic digitalis. In a word, let us have more social studies and English teachers with a sound Latin grounding.

The Supreme Court and the Constitutional Convention

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During the recent controversy concerning the powers of the Supreme Court it was customary to cite the proceedings of the Constitutional Convention against the Court. It was argued that the Court could not declare laws unconstitutional since it was con-

trary to the intention of the framers. It was asserted that three times the Convention considered and defeated a proposition to give the Court this power. Now while it may be questioned as to whether the Court has usurped its power, it is false to declare that

the power was considered and opposed by the Convention and that the members were hostile to judicial nullification.

Madison's *Notes* so often quoted by opponents of the Supreme Court as authority for their above assertions are found on careful reading to have been misinterpreted. The proposition considered and defeated was one which proposed to form a "Council of Revision" to *preview* bills passed by Congress and to *veto* such as it saw fit. The council was to consist of the Executive and the Supreme Court. The chief objection to such a council was that the Court in the *normal course of judicial procedure* would have occasion to *declare some laws unconstitutional*. Thus we see that the proposition was one concerning preview and veto and not review and nullification, and moreover that the Convention was not adverse to the practice of the Court in declaring laws unconstitutional.

Misinterpretation of the events of the Convention and the intentions of its members will be dissipated by a careful study of the proceedings of the Convention. A proposition to associate the Court with the Executive in the exercise of a veto over proposed legislation was the eighth of a series of resolutions presented by Randolph of Virginia on May 29.¹ In the debate on June 4 Gerry expressed opposition doubting "whether the Judiciary ought to form a part of it, as they will have sufficient checks against encroachments on their department by their exposition of laws, which involved a power of deciding on their constitutionality. In some states the judges had actually set aside laws as being against the Constitution. This was done too with general approbation."² King supported Gerry observing that "... the judges ought to be able to expound the law as it should come before them, free from the bias of having participated in its formation."³ Finally, Gerry moved to give the Executive alone, without the Judiciary, the revisionary control on the bills unless overruled by two-thirds of each house. This passed with eight states favoring and two opposing.⁴

On June 6 Wilson reintroduced his previously submitted amendment to Gerry's resolution to add a convenient number of the national Judiciary to the process of revision of bills. Madison seconded it giving as one of the reasons the utility of annexing the wisdom and weight of the Judiciary to the Executive whatever the object of the revisionary power was to be: to stop encroachment by the Legislature on other departments, or on the peoples' rights, or to

stop laws unwise in principle or incorrect in form.⁵

Gerry, King and Pinckney spoke against the amendment, since it violated the principle of a single responsible executive. Mason favored it, while Dickinson and Williamson preferred only that all laws pass by a two-thirds vote. The amendment to include the Court with the President in a veto, or preview, over proposed legislation was defeated by eight states to three.⁶

Wilson on July 21 revived the proposition by proposing an amendment to that effect to Randolph's resolution, number ten, dealing with the admission of new states. "It had been said that the judges as expositors of the laws," he declared, "would have an opportunity of defending their constitutional rights . . . but this power did not go far enough. Laws may be unjust, may be unwise, may be dangerous, may be destructive; and yet may not be so unconstitutional as to justify the judges in refusing to give them effect. Let them have a share in the revisionary power, and they will have an opportunity of taking notice of these characters of a law. . . ."⁷ Gorham, Gerry, Strong and Rutledge spoke against the amendment, while Wilson, Ellsworth, Madison and Mason favored it. The motion was again defeated, four states to three.⁸ During the debate Luther Martin declared "the association of the judges with the Executive (would be) . . . a dangerous innovation; . . . and as to the Constitutionality of the laws, that point will come before the judges in their proper official character."⁹ Mason had replied that "it had been said by Mr. Martin that if the judges were joined in this check on the laws, they would have a double negative since in their expository capacity they would have one negative. He would reply that in this case they would impede in one case only, the operation of the laws. They could declare an unconstitutional law void. . . ." He concluded that the judges should aid to prevent the passing of every improper law.¹⁰ At this point it is of interest to note that Mason agreed with Gerry and Martin of the opposing side that the judges sitting as a court could declare laws unconstitutional.

This same proposition to associate the judges with the Executive on a council of revision was again introduced by Madison on August 15.¹¹ This was defeated by a vote of eight states to three. During a brief debate Mercer expressed approval of the motion declaring he disapproved of the doctrine that the judges as expositors of the Constitution should have authority to declare a law void. He thought laws ought to be well and cautiously made, and then be

¹ *Documentary History of the Constitution of the United States of America*, 56th Congress, 2nd Session, House of Representatives, Document No. 529, Vol. III (Washington, 1900), Introductory Note, pp. iii-iv.

² *Ibid.*, p. 18.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 54-55.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 61.

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 76-78.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 79.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 390.

⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 391-399.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 395.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 397.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 536.

uncontrollable.¹² Dickinson "was strongly impressed with the remark of Mr. Mercer as to the power of the judges to set aside a law. He thought that no such power ought to exist. He was at the same time at a loss what expedient to substitute."¹³

Thus we see that it was a proposal to pass on bills before they became law which was presented to the Convention. It was defeated on the grounds that the Court could in the normal judicial procedure declare laws unconstitutional. Gerry, King and Martin championed this doctrine of judicial review. Wilson and Mason acknowledged and understood the practice and admitted the possibility of its continuance by the federal courts under the new constitution. Mercer

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 537.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 538.

and Dickinson, while expressing disapproval of the power of review, in arguing for passage of the amendment to give judges the power to preview bills expressed cognizance of the former practice.

The misstatement and confusion as to what was proposed in the Convention should not arise again. It may be debatable as to why specific provision for the power to review, to declare laws unconstitutional, was not included in the Constitution. At least it was not proposed and defeated as so often contended. Perhaps it was omitted as Gerry implied since it was a normal judicial procedure. Perhaps it was omitted partly, as Charles A. Beard declares in his book on the Constitution, because the makers of the Constitution felt it wiser to make no advance commitment.

The Case for a Nation-Wide Interchange of Secondary School Instructors

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The advantages of exchanging professors between institutions of higher learning both on a national and an international scale have been understood and acted upon for a long time. The fundamental reason for such exchanges has been the desire of various institutions to profit from the scholastic genius of specialists in different fields.

The reasons for advocating and encouraging similar exchanges of secondary school workers rest upon entirely different grounds. It is not imperative that the secondary school worker be a scholastic genius, although he will be none the worse for a profound knowledge of subject matter. But it is common knowledge that such attainments in themselves will not insure successful teaching in the secondary school, if anywhere. Brander Matthews once remarked that an educated gentleman should at least be in a position to forget a respectable amount of Latin.

The secondary school teacher can survive under a very heavy load of scholarship. But his task is one of transforming or metamorphosing subject matter into forms suitable for instruction, that is, suitable for assimilation. The latter task may be as much a matter of genius as the work of the research scholar.

This leads us to the statement of our first premise, that the finest achievements of secondary schools should be more widely disseminated. Conferences, conventions, and formal papers, whether local, state-wide or national, are notoriously inadequate and

futile as a means of transferring localized achievements to a wider audience. The rank and file of the teaching force remain unaffected by the discussions and pronouncements of conventions. Boards of education and school officers, also, are generally oblivious to such proceedings. Scientists do not depend upon hearsay testimony. They must see, examine, and explore. If educational leaders are to be realistic they must do likewise under penalty of finding their efforts abortive.

The contagion of great teaching never has been spread by means of convention talks or formal papers but through intimate contacts in real situations, real schools, real classrooms. The contagion cannot be spread and cannot even be comprehended by means of casual twenty-minute visits.

Not only is an interchange of instructors desirable as a means of giving wider currency to excellent developments in method and procedure; it is also desirable as a corrective of provincialism. Since secondary school teachers are actually required to add so little to their scholastic equipment after beginning secondary work, there is danger that they may limit their outlook to a particular environment. Large cities which make a practice of drawing the whole teaching staff from local training institutions are particularly liable to the evil of provincialism. Fixity of tenure, desirable as it is, may also contribute still more to its ill effects.

Just as travel and the sight of new regions, different habits of living, and new industrial surroundings furnish mental and spiritual stimulus, so a period of work in an entirely different part of the country would send a teacher back to his own school a greatly improved instructor. To break the routine of work that has been established over a period of years would be beneficial in itself. A teacher returning from an exchange appointment would bring to the home school, not only positive suggestions for improvement of procedure, but also a more productive mind, energized with new interests and new enthusiasm.

It would be entirely feasible for administrators in a particular school system to send forth exchange teachers with instructions to study specified problems. To mention only a few suggestive examples, some teachers could study with great profit the "Regional Program" movement initiated by Professor A. C. Krey in the city of Minneapolis; the whole vast problem of making our costly systems of education really function is here unfolded. Another group might direct attention towards methods of examining candidates for licenses to teach, as illustrated, let us say, in Boston, Massachusetts. Closely allied to the problem of examining candidates for licenses is the problem of teacher-training itself. It might be mutually profitable for normal colleges and secondary schools to institute an exchange of instructors. Another group might study vocational training in different centers, and still another, vocational guidance. The list could be extended indefinitely, to meet any conceivable problem or set of conditions. The benefits derived would be in direct proportion to the extent to which the program was made to function.

A comforting thought to those charged with making budgets and keeping expenditures within the budgets is the fact that the procedure suggested need not add an additional cent of expense. Local rules might have to be amended in order to permit teachers outside a given jurisdiction to teach within a particular school system. But rules should exist for the benefit of the schools, not the schools for the rules.

School systems not provided with a system for granting sabbatical leaves of absence would find the exchange system an excellent substitute—a substitute that might well yield better results than the sabbatical system itself.

Besides the benefits in wider horizons which exchange instructors would experience and the advantages to the school systems represented, there are still other far reaching advantages to be considered.

Two distinct problems confront educational leaders today. One problem society is demanding insistently shall be solved is that instruction offered in the schools shall function in the lives of the pupils. As Professor Krey aptly remarks, "If the secret of good teaching in the social studies lies in the teacher's

ability to connect the classroom instruction with the pupil's experience, so too, does it lie in the pupil's ability to utilize that instruction in his own dealings with society." Not only do we need to know what functional knowledge is; even more, we need to know how to make that knowledge active in the lives of our pupils. To solve that problem we need the combined wisdom of many minds.

Another problem calling insistently for solution is that of bringing about a greater degree of harmony in educational aims the country over in place of the chaos that now reigns. Individual authors with their radical panaceas and their publishers with books to sell add more confusion to a situation already confused. We would not willingly succumb to a totalitarian control of education in which teachers are told what to teach and pupils are told what to believe; yet, that is one of the ways out of chaos. We would not accept willingly even the centralized system of educational control in France in which it is possible for the minister of education in Paris to point to a chart and tell you at any minute what every child in France is studying. But democracy, if it is to survive, must work—must be made to work. Democracy must produce results in education as in politics or else succumb. "Governments," as William Penn remarked, "like clocks, are made by men, and by men, they may be completely disarranged."

The classical example of unity of thought and unity of action achieved as the result of discussion and communication is the familiar achievement of the committees of correspondence of the American Revolution. An interchange of instructors might well supply the points of contact whereby a better understanding of experiences could be established. Educational committees of correspondence might save many a school and many a school system from costly and useless experiments that lead to failure. Professor Krey refers to three "Persistent Fallacies" which should not be constantly repeated. But they are repeated with regularity: first, the fallacy regarding the use of current news; second, the use of community study; third, the use of words. The fallacies practiced wholesale in many schools under these three heads alone would account for much of the illiteracy in our schools and much of the political ineptitude of our voting population. Many other fallacies are practiced in the name of education which, if practiced in a similar way in the commercial world, would lead inevitably to bankruptcy.

As a nation we are in need of a unified and nationalized educational policy. We cannot attain that unification through the machinery of a federal Department of Education, because, inevitably the political feet of clay would show themselves beneath the educational robes. Unification that is not based upon understanding, common consent, and conviction of

the rank and file of the teaching force would be sterile. It would be undemocratic and un-American. Discussion and exploration that spring from the rank and file or are wholeheartedly accepted by the rank and file constitute the method of democracy. The unique feature of democracy is that it springs from within individual minds. Autocracy, absolutism, and totalitarianism are superimposed from without. If the methods of democracy fail, so will democracy fail.

Flag saluting and mumbling of phrases will not develop national spirit. A conscious striving to attain common objectives will develop a healthy civic spirit. The refrain of William James, "The need is for a moral substitute for war," may be realized through the struggle for common educational objectives. Educational committees of correspondence tied up with a nation-wide interchange of teachers may point the way to the attainment of that end.

Local History in Junior College American History Courses

MELVIN GINGERICH

Washington Junior College, Washington, Iowa

With over five hundred junior colleges in the United States, the time has come to inquire as to whether there are any methods of history teaching especially adapted for use in these institutions. The writer wishes to show in this article that local history can be used very effectively in the average junior college American history course and will describe the plan he has used for the last seven years.

Before entering upon the study of the experiment itself, several teaching principles should be reviewed. It is generally agreed that we teach most effectively when we begin with the student's experience and knowledge, building on this foundation the new edifice of increased information and understanding. For instance, if a student knows that in his community there were several stations of the Underground Railway, this item of information can be made the basis of an assignment that will lead him, not only into a greater knowledge of his own country, but also into a keener appreciation of the meaning of the entire Underground Railway system.

Another principle that is being emphasized is that we learn to appreciate by learning to do. A music appreciation course has only limited value to the student who does not learn how to produce music. To appreciate art most fully, one must learn something about the tools the artist uses, and one must even experience the use of the tools and materials of the artist. Just as students must learn how to take part in plays in order to appreciate the drama most fully, in a similar way students of history must learn something about the tools and methods of the historian in order to appreciate truly the great writings of history. In the February, 1937, issue of *Social Education*, Katherine Taylor wrote, "Young students, also, need to learn how to use sources effectively, even if only in very limited quantities. For it is more than

probable that the textbooks of the near future either will contain much source material, or will require it as a necessary supplement to their use." George G. Andrews in the November, 1936, issue of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* writing on the use of historical sources showed clearly how history can be made to live for the student if he becomes acquainted with the tools and methods of the historian.

If the student learns most readily by beginning with materials with which he is already familiar in part and if in order to appreciate history he must know something of the tools and methods the historian employs, does it not follow that the assignment of papers requiring research into local history is the best way to make use of these two principles? Instead of having a student write a term paper on a topic such as the Alaskan seal fisheries, for which he may have no background, why not have him write on early fur trading in southeastern Iowa if that happens to be where he lives? It is granted that the first of these topics might be more important than the second, but if the student is working on local history, a greater interest in his topic will be aroused than if he were working on a subject far removed from his own experiences. This interest in the local history topic listed above may very easily lead the student into the broad and very important topic of fur trade on the American frontier.

For the past seven years, the students in the Washington (Iowa) Junior College American history classes have been writing short papers on local history topics. Usually the subjects assigned are narrow and limited. The purpose of this type of assignment is to encourage the student to do a piece of original research rather than to write an article which he could have copied from a county history or some similar source. The students are told that these articles are

not to be longer than two newspaper columns since the local paper which will print the best ones does not care to have longer articles. They are told, too, that the best articles will be clipped and sent to the Iowa State Historical Society and that this organization will mention their articles in its quarterly publication. Nearly all students are anxious to see their papers in print, and this possibility furnishes excellent motivation.

The student chooses his topic from a list posted in the classroom and in the library. It is then explained that the source materials they need can be found in court houses, church records, newspaper files, family records, school records, business records, old diaries, old pictures, maps, and atlases, and in the recollections of old settlers.

Among the topics treated have been "Early Chautauquas"; "The First County Railroad"; "County Fairs in the Sixties"; "The Early Postal System"; and "The First Court Houses." Over a hundred of these papers have been written and they have covered many phases of the early history of this community. During the current school year an attempt is being made to bring together materials dealing with the early roads of our county and everything relating to the development of the school system of our city. A mimeographed booklet containing the best articles written

in the last seven years will be produced this winter and will be offered for sale at the local book store.

The students who have written these articles are nearly always enthusiastic about their projects. Some have said that this work was perhaps the most interesting assignment in their college experience. Many of them have maintained their interest in their topics and have followed them as hobbies ever since. One young man has become quite an authority on early county hotels, another has kept up his study of historic trees in the county, and still another has learned much of the pertinent information concerning early local fire companies. These state, too, that the study of local history has led them into a keener appreciation of national history.

That criticisms can be directed against this method, the writer will readily admit. He is convinced, however, that in a junior college where the students have a general knowledge of their community and where they can easily gain access to the sources, these assignments produce a much greater appreciation for, and interest in history than do the term papers ordinarily assigned. Since both students and instructor know the main points in the history of their local community, it is much easier to use this plan in a junior college than it is in a four year college which draws its students from many communities.

The Motion Picture Study Period

ROBERT B. NIXON

Radnor High School, Wayne, Pennsylvania

Each month there appears in this section, synopses of films that may be used in the social studies classroom. The films selected are those that can be obtained free, or by simply paying transportation charges. They will include topics in the fields of industry, agriculture, transportation and business. The publishers and the author give permission to teachers to mimeograph or to use these synopses and any other material found in this section in any way as an aid to teaching. All films listed are silent films. Methods for using and suggestions for booking films may be found in *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXIX (November 1938), 306-309.

CARRYING AMERICAN PRODUCTS TO FOREIGN LANDS

Title: Carrying American Products to Foreign Lands.
Source: American Museum of Natural History, 77th Street and Central Park West, New York

City: United States Steel Corporation, 71 Broadway, New York City.

Sponsor: United States Steel Corporation.
Topic: Foreign Trade.
Size: 16 mm. 35 mm.
Reels: 1, length 400 feet, 1000 feet.
Running time: 15 minutes.
Number: A.M.N.H. 122, U. S. Steel Corp. 53.

The Isthmian Steamship Line, which is a subsidiary of the United States Steel Corporation operates steamers to all parts of the world. Its home port is in New York and it is in this port that all the steamers are registered. The Isthmian Line steamers sail from New York and other North Atlantic ports to Pacific Coast ports, to the Hawaiian Islands, China, Japan, Netherlands East Indies, Straits Settlements and India, as well as to Europe, from the Pacific Coast.

The fleet consists of twenty-seven steamers, some of which were built by the Federal Shipbuilding and Drydock Company, and others by the Chickasaw

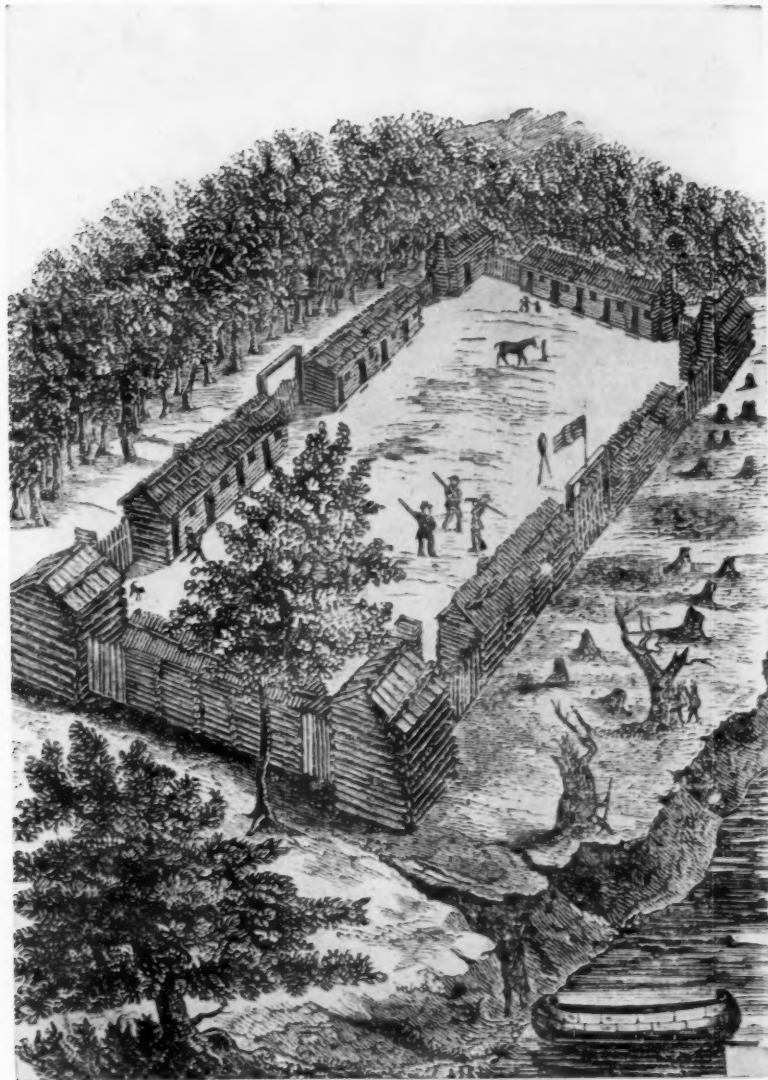
ILLUSTRATED SECTION

VOLUME XXX, NUMBER 1

THE SOCIAL STUDIES

JANUARY, 1939

LIFE IN THE COLONIAL PERIOD



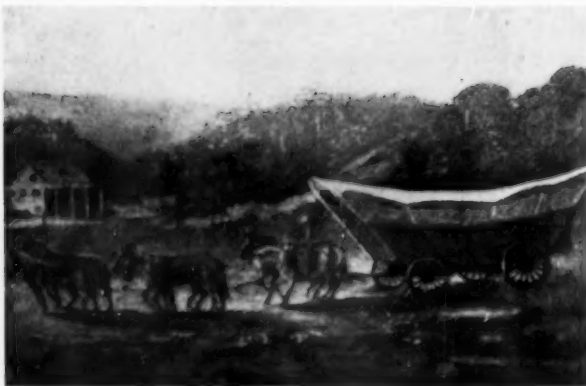
Life on the frontier was difficult, crude and harsh. It was an unremitting struggle against the forces of nature. Forests had to be cleared and wild animals subdued. There was constant danger from the Indians. The illustration depicts Boonesborough, Kentucky, in 1775. It was the first fort erected in Kentucky and the first permanent settlement in that state. Daniel Boone, its founder, was born in Pennsylvania. When he was sixteen years old, his family moved to Virginia and thence to North Carolina. Later, Boone himself went through the Cumberland Gap to Kentucky where he founded Boonesborough. Note in the picture the stockade connecting the outer walls of the houses. The windows and doors all face the interior of the enclosure to insure protection.

LIFE IN THE COLONIAL PERIOD

In the early colonial period the glow of the open fire, pine knots, and rush lights supplied the only light in the home after sundown. Then candles became the usual means of lighting. The making of candles was a household industry. Wicks of flax and cotton thread were dipped and redipped in melted sheep tallow or other fat. Six or eight strings or candle-wicks were attached to the candle rod and after its dipping was completed, the candles were hung in a cool place to permit the tallow to harden. Note the spinning wheel in the background of the picture.

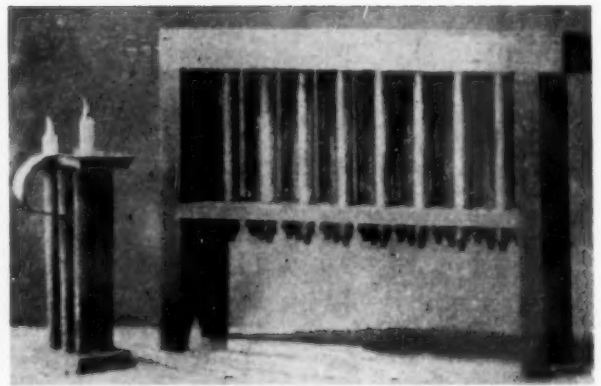


From A. M. Earle's *Home Life in Colonial Days*,
By permission of The Macmillan Co.



From A. M. Earle's *Home Life in Colonial Days*,
By permission of The Macmillan Co.

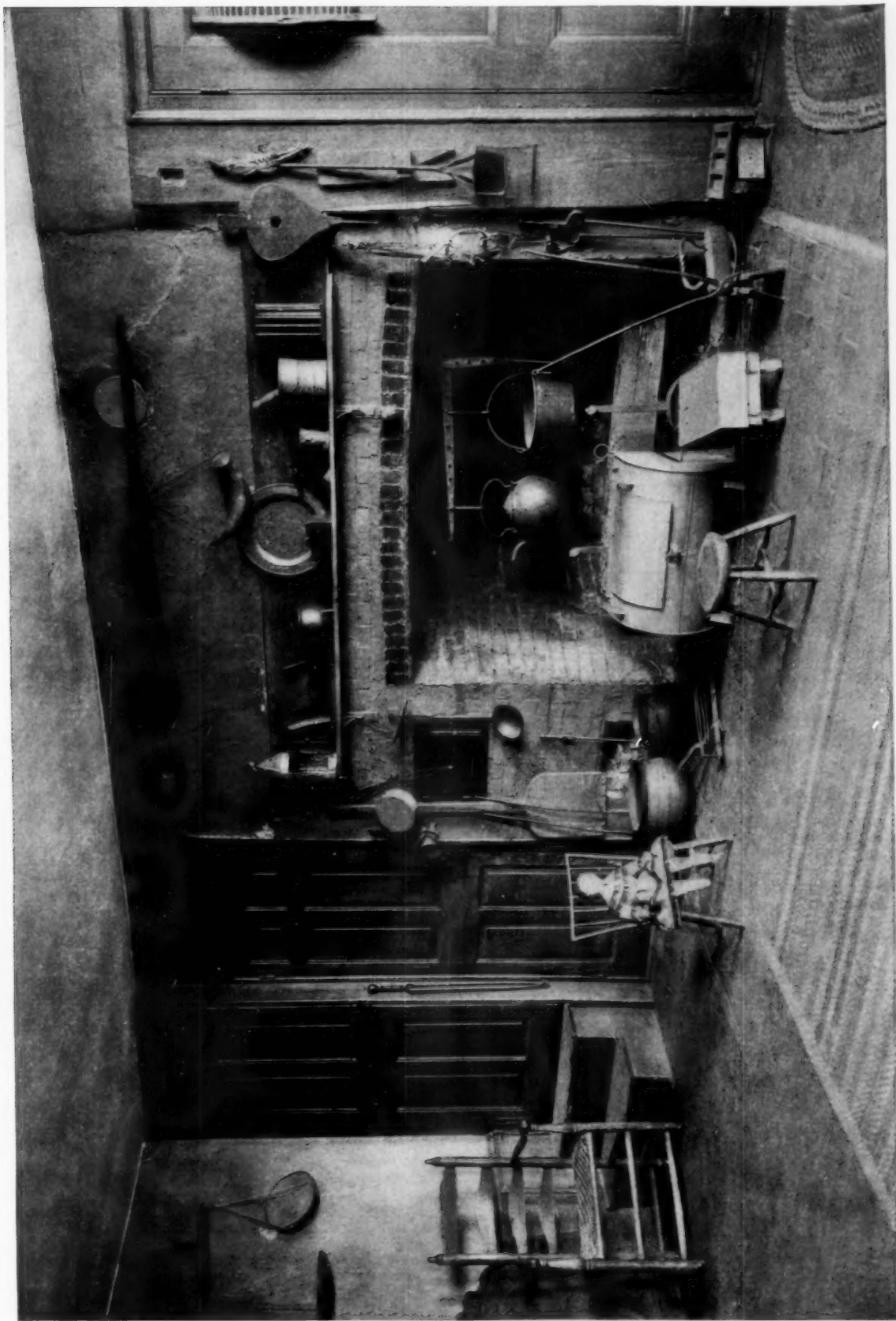
The Conestoga wagon came into use during the latter part of the colonial period. Originating among the Pennsylvania Germans prior to 1750, it was first used extensively during the French and Indian War for transporting army supplies. It was a canvas-covered wagon, usually drawn by four, five, or six horses. It reached its height of popularity about the first part of the nineteenth century, but it was used extensively until after the Civil War. This means of transportation played an important part in the westward movement.



From A. M. Earle's *Home Life in Colonial Days*,
By permission of The Macmillan Co.

Another method of making candles in the colonial home was by a molding process. Candle molds consisting of several metal cylinders were used. In each cylinder a wick was securely fastened and then the melted tallow was carefully poured in. It required some skill to make candles in this manner on account of the adhesion of the tallow or wax to the molds and to the contraction of the candles on cooling. Men who engaged in the business of making candles were known as chandlers.

LIFE IN THE COLONIAL PERIOD



Life in the colonial period largely centered around the wide, open fireplace in the kitchen. This room was usually the common living room as well as the room where food was cooked and eaten. Note the variety of articles and utensils.

LIFE IN THE COLONIAL PERIOD

The Wonders of the Invisible World:

Being an Account of the

TRIALS

OF

Several Witches,

Lately Executed in

NEW ENGLAND:

And of several remarkable Curiosities therein Occurring

Together with,

- I. Observations upon the Nature, the Number, and the Operations of the Devils.
- II. A true Narrative of a late outrage committed by a knot of Witches in *Salem-Land*, very much resembling, and so far explaining, that under which *New-England* has laboured.
- III. Some Counsels, denoting a due Improvement of the Terrible Things lately done by the mischievous and amazing Range of *Evil-Spirits* in *New-England*.
- IV. A brief Discourse upon those Temptations which are the more ordinary Devices of Satan.

By COTTON MATHER.

Published by the Special Command of his EXCELLENCY the Governour of the Province of the *Massachusetts-Bay* in *New-England*.

Printed first at *Boston* in *New-England*; and Reprinted at *London*, for *John Dunton* at the *Raven* in the *Poultry* 1693.

At different times in the world's history, there has existed a belief that some persons, in league with evil spirits, could cast spells or inflict injuries on others by supernatural means. Between 1647 and 1662 fourteen persons were hanged as witches in Connecticut and Massachusetts. Interest then abated until the latter part of the century when it was revived. During the horrible Salem witchcraft hysteria, between 1690 and 1692, two hundred persons were accused of being in league with the devil, one hundred and fifty were imprisoned, and twenty were put to death. Cotton Mather and other clergymen were partly responsible for arousing the superstition to such a high pitch at a time when it was beginning to abate in Europe. Belief in witchcraft prevailed in other colonies, but only in New England did executions occur.

Poor Richard, 1733.

A N

Almanack

For the Year of Christ

1733,

Being the First after LEAP YEAR:

<i>And makes since the Creation</i>	Years
By the Account of the <i>E. Item Greeks</i>	7241
By the Latin Church, when \odot ent. γ	6912
By the Computation of <i>W. W.</i>	5712
By the <i>Roman</i> Chronology	5682
By the <i>Jewish</i> Rabbies	5494

Wherein is contained

The Lunations, Eclipses, Judgment of the Weather, Spring Tides, Planets Motions & mutual Aspects, Sun and Moon's Rising and Setting, Length of Days, Time of High Water, Tides, Courts, and observable Days.

Fitted to the Latitude of Forty Degrees, and a Meridian of Five Hours West from *London*, but may without sensible Error, serve all the adjacent Places, even from *Newfoundland* to *South-Carolina*.

By RICHARD SAUNDERS, Philom.

PHILADELPHIA:

Printed and sold by B. FRANKLIN, at the New Printing Office near the Market.

The Third Impression.

Poor Richard's Almanac was a popular almanac published by Benjamin Franklin from 1732 to 1757 under the assumed name of Richard Saunders. In addition to the usual almanac material, it contained proverbs, maxims and common-sense advice. Lucid epigrams such as "If you would have a faithful servant and one that you like, serve yourself," "A penny saved is a penny earned," and dozens of others have received the tribute of frequent quotation. Thousands of copies of the almanac were sold annually and it exerted a wide influence in the colonies.

Shipbuilding and Car Company. Each of the vessels will carry between 9500 and 10,000 tons of cargo; they all have a length of approximately 442 feet, with a breadth or, to use a nautical term, a beam of 56 feet. The cargo, which is miscellaneous in its nature, ranging from steel in its many forms, to sugar, pine-apples, hemp, rubber and spices, is carefully stowed in the steamers to insure its arrival at destination in the best condition possible. This requires continuous attention being given to the proper ventilation of the cargo, especially when the steamer is engaged in a trade upon which it will encounter various acute climatic changes. The steamers are capable of handling extremely long pieces of steel. Some of the vessels are able to carry pieces 95 feet long and, under certain conditions, 100 feet long. Each vessel is equipped to handle heavy pieces weighing between twenty-five and thirty tons.

Some of the steamers are propelled by turbines and others by reciprocating engines, and all use oil as fuel, being able to carry quite large quantities in tanks adapted for its storage. When a steamer commences to load, the loading operation conforms to a pre-arranged plan. This operation is called "stowage" and generally, the heavier goods, such as steel rails, galvanized sheets, steel pipe, are loaded first and cargoes of a lighter nature are placed on top of these. This, of course, would depend upon the destination of the goods as, naturally, the last articles loaded would be the first to be discharged at destination. Cargo is placed in the holds according to destination, size, weight, and moveability.

Before leaving port, the ship is thorough prepared for her voyage, that is, all her hatches are closed and fastened down securely to guard against the possible entry of sea water; booms or derricks are lowered and the officers and crew are at their stations. The ship's daily position at sea is obtained from the sun by means of the sextant and, although the navigation charts show the various depths of the ocean, these are constantly checked by the ship's officers. The actual steering of the steamer is performed by a sailor and he, in turn, takes his instructions from the navigating officer on duty at the bridge at the time. Instructions and other information which may be found necessary to be communicated from the bridge to the engine room, are done by means of telegraph and telephone. The telegraphic signals are automatically repeated back to the officer on the bridge and this enables him to know that his original instructions have been perfectly understood by the engineers.

The safety, health and comfort of the crew are carefully studied and provided for by the officials of the company, as well as the ship's officers. All officers are trained specially to reduce personal injury to a minimum to themselves and to members of the crew. The food is inspected by government officials prior to

being placed on board and the crew have their meals in modern, clean, well-lighted dining salons.

While at sea and, of course, in port, the necessary drills to accustom the crew to the prompt and safe handling of lifeboats and fire-fighting apparatus, are carefully observed. The steamer is in touch at all times with other vessels and most shore stations, by means of up-to-date radio equipment. The old-time method of lighting the steamer by means of oil lamps has no existence on these modern freighters. All navigating lights, rooms, salons and sleeping quarters, as well as passageways, are lighted with modern electrical equipment.

TEST

1. Cargo is placed in a ship according to 1.....
2..... 3..... 4.....
2. Most of our modern merchant ships use
for fuel.
3. All orders to the engine room must be
4. Sailors on American ships enjoy living
quarters.
5. Soundings are made to ascertain the
of the ocean.
6. The sextant is used to get the of the
ship.
7. The Isthmian Line ships use the
Canal.
8. One of the greatest aids to ships in distress is the
.....
9. If we would keep our mills working we must se-
cure products from

THE PANAMA CANAL

Title:	Panama Canal.
Source:	American Museum of Natural History, 77th Street and Central Park West, New York City; General Electric Company, Visual Instruction Section, Schenectady, N.Y.; National Council of Young Men's Christian Associations, Motion Picture Bureau, 347 Madison Avenue, New York City.
Sponsor:	General Electric Company.
Topic:	Trade Routes; Mechanics.
Size:	16 mm. 35 mm.
Reels:	1, length 400 feet, 1,000 feet.
Running time:	15 minutes.
Number:	A.M.N.H. 21; G.E. 49; Y.M.C.A. 1392.

President Theodore Roosevelt was responsible for building the Panama Canal while Congress was talking about it. It was through the work of the army engineer, Colonel G. W. Goethals that the

project was completed. The cost of the venture was \$400,000,000. About 200,000,000 cubic feet of earth were excavated. Hundreds of drilling apparatus and 25,000,000 pounds of dynamite were used. The earth was scooped by steam shovels and taken away in railroad flat cars. Much of the time seventy-five trains were in operation. Complete sections of rails for the necessary railroads were lifted by derricks to be used in other places as the work progressed.

While steam shovels were largely used, hydraulic excavations were made in some places. By this process the soil is worn down by means of intense high pressure streams of water from a hose. The loosened soil was carried down a stream to the sea. About 5,000,000 cubic yards of concrete were used in building the locks and dams. This would be equivalent to a five-story building as wide as an average city block, built over ten blocks. There are forty-six sets of gates, forty-seven to eighty-seven feet high, weighing from 300 to 600 tons each.

The first boats entered the locks on October 15, 1914. A landslide occurred and the steam shovels had to get busy again. For various intervals in 1915 and 1916, traffic was interrupted because of landslides, but these difficulties were gradually overcome.

Today ships pass through the canal from ocean to ocean making New York just 8,000 miles nearer to San Francisco than by the old route.

The film shows details of this great engineering project. Gatun Lake, the greatest lake made by man, and the use of electrical equipment throughout the canal, are also presented.

TEST

1. The Panama Canal became an accomplished fact owing to the energy of President (full name).
2. The army engineer,, brought the canal to completion.
3. To cut away dirt and were used.
4. There are sets of gates in the canal.
5. The greatest man-made lake is Lake.
6. The locks of the canal are made of
7. The gates of the locks are made of
8. The canal was first opened in
9. Ships are towed through the canal by means of
10. Dredges have to be on the lookout for in the canal.

Geographical Concepts in American History Textbooks

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The writer has sought to survey seven outstanding textbooks used to teach American history in the high schools. The list of titles is appended at the end of this essay. The purpose of the investigation is to learn to what extent geographical concepts enter into historical exposition. It seems obvious that one cannot have a thorough knowledge of events in time unless he also has a thorough knowledge of the environing physical scene where the events transpire. This intimate correlation between history and geography has received sufficient attention in continental Europe to warrant the formation of several departments of study at the university level, the most recent of which is *Geopolitik* in Germany. In the United States, however, only in the last two decades have we reluctantly begun to alter our orthodox approach to history. It was a favorite observation of Max

Weber that a social institution casts its shadow in space as well as in time; therefore, as a necessary adjunct to understanding the historical process we must first remark the effect of environment on man and second the reciprocal effect of man on his environment.

A complete shift in the teaching of history in this direction is long overdue and increased concern with the operation of social forces on the part of the historian will in no way cure this absence of an ecological study. Historical studies must begin to work with the basic concepts of the influence of climate, land forms, etc., on human activity which may be tentatively classified as (a) initial human adjustments, such as exploration and settlement, man's earliest response to his environment; (b) secondary human adjustments, such as the establishment of towns,

cities, factories, man's more sophisticated response to his environment by social organization; and (c) planning programs of development of the group for the future, such as intelligent domestic and foreign policies. This last may well be deemed to pass out of the domain of history into the province of political science.

Such men as Ellsworth Huntington of Yale, J. Russell Smith of Columbia, and Griffith Taylor of the University of Toronto have done much to make geographical concepts available to historians and to indicate their value as permitting new evaluations of factors in the social process. But to date, if we except the cases of Miss Semple and Mr. Hulbert, we have had few in the United States who have undertaken a synthesis of the historical and geographical methods such as are common in Europe today. It is the humble hope of the writer that in the near future some historian will wake from his "dogmatic slumber" and following in the footsteps of Ratzel in Germany, Brunhes in France, and Fleure in England, will master the elements of the allied departments of geography and anthropology sufficiently to permit him to write history using this broader base, producing not just another eclectic treatment by a series of different persons from their several unrelated points of view. Until then we must put up with the present twin evils on the one hand of additional monographs using geographical notions, but of narrower and narrower social scope, and on the other hand with social histories of increasing size and weight which continue to ignore the ecological approach. In examining the seven volumes at hand the writer has no desire to condemn in toto, but merely to point out lack of acquaintance with specific geographical notions and how bit by bit new concepts are creeping into their venerable field of knowledge heretofore supposed only to be concerned with social institutions arranged serially in time.

Every one of the seven textbooks recognizes the necessary relation of geographical study to an understanding of history, though three of them, Beard, Harlow and Mace make this acknowledgment in a most perfunctory way. Harlow in his preface, for example, states that a familiarity with geography is "handy" if you desire to make a long automobile trip and desire to know where you are going and relative distances.¹ On the other hand Wirth, though he champions a functional presentation of history, makes no explicit reference in his introduction to the role played by geography.² The fact that geography *conditions* all human endeavor and may even determine the very mode of human life, occupation, and pros-

perity, is not mentioned in the foreword of any of the seven authors mentioned. To both Harlow and Mace the study of geography still means at most the ability to bound states and locate cities on the map. "Human geography" as concerned with our daily routine, occupation, and welfare is a vision which they have yet to glimpse. Judging from the range and variety of maps employed by Dodd, Fish, Jerne-gan, and Wirth, geography to them, however, has begun to take on social connotation. Both Fish and Jerne-gan feel that geographical differences play such a basic role in generating sectional differences that they have organized their treatment of the colonial period into geographic divisions (e.g. Southern, Middle, and New England States), summarizing independently the contributions of each section of our national life. All seven authors recognize the special characteristics of each area whether or not they take the pains to trace the same back to geographical origins. Further, each of the seven textbooks acknowledges the unique character given to American life by the "frontier" and its continued repercussion on our social and political ideals as a nation.

To give a degree of objectivity to this study a table is included on page 31, in which the frequency of the use of different geographical concepts is recorded. The first three Roman numerals embrace the phase of initial adjustment, while Roman numerals four and five deal with the phase of secondary adjustment. The last heading undertakes to analyze the kind of maps used as illustration of the text. The concepts used are drawn from a series of courses taken in the geography department of the University of Chicago. The text is credited with use of one of these concepts every time space of a paragraph or up to one page is given to expounding a single concept. Wherever the geographical implications are inadequately drawn the instance bears an asterisk.

In the early days of discovery and exploration, the sea routes to America and the land routes overland are of the essence of how this process takes place, hence, their primary consideration. To illustrate how far historians still are from making geographical ways of thinking their own, it is noteworthy that not one of the textbooks states why Columbus had his first landfall in the Bahama Islands, though two of them do state the specific location and route followed in this memorable voyage. Have we a right to infer that prevailing southwesterly winds that perpetually blow in that part of the Atlantic plus the mode of navigation "by dead reckoning" are not the subject matter of history and therefore, deserve no notice, particularly where these southwesterly winds determined the landfall of three out of four of the trips of Columbus? It would seem that a few pertinent words as to the physical conditions under which the Spanish sailed would help to explain why Spain

¹ R. V. Harlow, *Growth of the United States* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1932), p. 4.

² F. P. Wirth, *The Development of America* (New York: American Book Company, 1936), p. v.

tended to dominate the southern half of America while the northern European nations came to possess the northern half.

Again, the discovery of the route of the North Atlantic by Gosnold in 1602 requires a few remarks about great circle sailing and head winds, none of which any of the texts save Fish vouchsafe. In a word, the principal water route to North America from the days of exploration till now, and over which the majority of our millions of immigrants have come, is passed over with silence by six reputable political and social historians. To complete the picture, not one of the authors points out that these same sea-lanes would naturally be the areas where captures of merchant marine and even naval battles have taken place in the three major wars in which the United States has participated and will take place in conflicts yet to be. The land and water are always with us; therefore, historically speaking, they are deemed of no major consequence. Or as the French mathematician, Henri Poincaré remarked, nothing is so difficult to evaluate and understand as is the patent and obvious.

In partial extenuation of their consistent neglect of the sea, American historians have paid disproportionate attention to the location of land routes, first from the coast into the hinterland, second over the Appalachian mountain barrier and down the Mississippi River system, and third over the Rockies. The discussion of these routes in the seven texts is fairly consistent and full as influencing the people of the United States. But in no instance is it related to the pattern of land occupancy. Here again the historian could profitably learn much by adopting the more systematic techniques used in geography.

Turning now to the matter of secondary adjustments, we are appalled by almost the complete absence of any attempt to correlate commercial and industrial areas with city location and growth. Here six out of seven works examined have neither any comment to make nor any explanation to offer on the how and why of our tremendous urban development that now embraces over sixty per cent of our population. The notion that industries occur at the locus of the intersection of three factors: (a) access to raw materials; (b) access to markets; (c) abundant labor supply, carefully elaborated by Hartshorne of the University of Minnesota, evidently smacks too much of sociology to be used by any reputable historian. Hence, he proceeds in his usual rule-of-thumb fashion to enumerate such factors as appeal to his own private judgment in causing the appearance and development of cities. The number of blanks present under this heading indicate the royal disregard that historians hold for considering how cities came to be where they are, though when they grow to bloated size he is only too ready to discuss their effect on political and social

life, quite forgetting that he has omitted any description of their infancy and youth.

With regard to the use of the notion of geographic unit areas the historian appears much more at home. It affords an easy means of summarizing the character of a locality and incidentally of pointing out a controlling factor in its historical development. Here again, however, when the historian adopts geographical techniques, he does so half heartedly or, one might even venture the remark, quasi-consciously. This is well illustrated by the works of Charles A. Beard who continually refers to sectional differences as a source of political divergence. Gratifying as this may be to geographers, it is hardly analytically satisfying, for at no point does he define or enumerate the products, produced or manufactured, that form the basis of sectionalism. Only the works of Mace, Fish, and Jernegan exhibit crop and resource maps, and in the five out of seven texts which discuss these matters the remarks are either inadequate or not correlated with political or social development. As an instance of what might be done in historical exposition where the reference is closely and continuously kept between man and his environment consult Webb's *Great Plains*. Also, the work of Fish occasionally illumines his text with flashes of geographic insight where he gives a clear-cut statement of the role that commercial areas play in our daily life. The case chosen is that of the state of New Jersey whose affairs sway that way under the gravitational pull of the two great metropolitan centers, Philadelphia and New York.³

The writer believes that much of the present non-analytical political and social description, termed history, to follow a sociological suggestion, can be fruitfully resolved, at least for the period since 1865, into various sorts of tensions between major metropolitan and industrial areas in the United States. This historical approach would have the dual advantage: (a) that it would give our present vague process of ascertaining causes "a local habitation and a home"; (b) granted a point of origin, certain factors in our problem could be eliminated as constants and the remaining unknowns could be definitely enumerated. We could then proceed, systematically, to examine our data in quest of concomitant variation between factors, the only kind of cause left worthy of our labors. Holding with Kant that no intellectual category can exhaust reality, we recognize that any attempt to grasp the "whole of history" at any one time can only be partially successful, and consequently we need never be surprised that a residue of the past still remains unexplained when our analysis is complete. This is the intellectual condition of our efforts, even

³ C. R. Fish and H. E. Wilson, *History of the United States* (New York: American Book Company, 1934), pp. 87-88.

TABULATION OF FREQUENCY OF USE OF GEOGRAPHICAL CONCEPTS

	W. H. Mace	Barker, Dodd and Commager	Fish and Wilson	R. V. Harlow	Jernegan, Carlson and Ross	F. P. Wirth	Chas. A. Beard and Mary R. Beard
I. SEA ROUTES							
a) Routes of Columbus	1*	x	x	x	1*	1	x
b) Route of North Atlantic	1*	x	1	x	x	1	x
c) Area of naval captures and engagements 1776-80, 1812, 1861-65, 1914-18	1	x	x	x	x	x	x
II. LAND ROUTES							
a) From coast into the hinterland	1	1	2	x	2	3	1
b) Over the Appalachians and down the Mississippi River system	3	5	4	3	5	3	2
c) Over the Rockies	3	1	4	3	4	2	2
III. CHARACTER OF SETTLEMENT INFLUENCED BY							
a) Climate—temperature, humidity, winds, rainfall, etc.	2	2	5	1	2	x	x
b) Soil	2	2	3	1	3	x	x
c) Proximity to and character of natural resources	·	2	2	1	1	x	2
d) Pattern of land occupancy	x	1	5	x	3	x	1
e) Accessibility	x	3	1	x	5	x	x
IV. DETERMINANTS OF CITY SITES							
a) Cheap access both to source of raw material and to market	x	1	4	2	1	x	x
b) Favorable climate	x	x	1	x	x	x	x
c) Favorable drainage	x	x	1	x	x	x	x
d) Pure and adequate water supply	x	x	1	x	x	x	x
V. GEOGRAPHICAL UNIT AREAS							
a) Crop areas	x	5	4	2	2	1	x
b) Commercial areas	2	3	3	2	1	x	x
c) Industrial areas	1	1	4	x	4	1	x
VI. CHARACTER OF MAPS USED							
a) Routes of exploration, war, and commerce	8	14	3	6	16	8	x
b) Topographical, regional, special	1	1	1	x	2	10	x
c) Political	19	25	12	22	17	8	x
d) Frontier	1	x	1	x	4	x	x
e) Distribution of population	1	x	x	x	4	3	x
f) Distribution of resources and crops	3	x	1	x	2	1	x

as geography is one of the conditions of history.

Coming now to the map material employed in the several books it may be briefly characterized as still lagging lamentably behind the best knowledge and practice of present geography, excepting only the work of Jernegan, which reveals the most consistent thought in this regard. Charles A. Beard reveals his characteristic preoccupation with social phenomena, ordered solely in time, by writing 1661 pages with no maps or charts whatsoever. Truly an interesting commentary on the still current dogma that history is concerned largely with qualitative change in time with little or no reference to its changes in space. Perhaps this bias is necessary to overcome the inclination of our age to be "visual minded," but to the writer the omission of all spatial representation of society smacks more of "over compensation" than of a fair minded sense of proportion.

The portrayal of the routes followed by the westward movements and the variations in the political complexion of the nation still receive major attention in the maps as well as in the texts. The more subtle and refined procedures developed by the geographers

of relating different kinds of human activity to a real distribution (e.g. the correlation between mineral resources and industrial centers, between climate and population density, etc.) have not yet attained to wide currency among historians. Even the much talked of frontier is charted but once in Mace and Fish, not at all in Beard, Dodd, Fish, and Wirth and though represented four times in Jernegan it is given but one-third of a page in space, while the relatively unimportant political maps are repeated over and over again in colored full page form. Similarly, the maps of population distribution, the most informing type of cartography in the amount of concrete information that it offers about the everyday life and condition of the people, are not printed in contrasting color in a single one of the seven works surveyed. The legal fiction of the state with all its flamboyant appurtenances still hypnotizes the historian's eye as the adequate expression of national life; while by a gentleman's agreement they pass by with a few words the "eternal rocks and hills" which existed before man was born and will probably endure after the mouths of men are stopped with dust. To indicate that this

longer view of history is not merely Quixotic, may I close with a quotation from the French economic historian, Vicomte d'Avenel:

Through the somber or glorious hours that our country has gone, indifferent to all the sudden turns of fortune, civil revolution, external wars, intrigues and exploits, the "fait divers" of history which please us in our books, these pass above his head—the peasant, the worker, [who] from father to son dig, weave, mold iron, cut wood, and saw stone.⁴

The days of the romantic descriptions of William Hickling Prescott and Francis Parkman are gone and in its stead the people of the United States have a right to ask that history be written in terms that have

some connection with their personal welfare in specific localities and housing. Thus in this program of reorientation the writer maintains the findings of geography and geographers should be given their due place in the new historical outlook.

- William H. Mace, *American History* (New York: Rand, McNally Company, 1925).
 E. C. Barker, W. E. Dodd and H. S. Commager, *Our Nation's Development* (New York: Row, Peterson and Company, 1934).
 Charles A. Beard and Mary R. Beard, *The Rise of American Civilization*. Revised and enlarged single volume edition (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933).
 Carl Russell Fish and Howard E. Wilson, *History of the United States* (New York: American Book Company, 1934).
 R. V. Harlow, *Growth of the United States* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1932).
 M. W. Jernegan, H. E. Carlson and A. C. Ross, *Growth of the American People* (New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1934).
 Fremont P. Wirth, *The Development of America* (New York: American Book Company, 1936).

⁴ *Les Français de mon Temps* (Paris, 1935), p. 35. (Translation by the writer.)

The Teacher and the Peace Movement

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Today, in these times of unrest and war preparation, the need for strenuous effort on the part of those interested in peace is greater than ever before. If the peace movement is to succeed the participants must plot their course with great care. Stress must be placed on peace education in school, as here lies the greatest hope for the success of the entire peace movement. At present, peace instruction in the schools is haphazard or informal. Most peace education is given as a side note or as explanatory material. For the most part the teaching of peace is done indirectly, in extra-curricular courses such as International and Junior Red Cross clubs. This is not sufficient, as not enough students are reached in this way.

Courses in peace must be given first in teacher training colleges and universities. Then the beginning teacher will be able to insert peace instruction into her subject with ease. Without formalized courses this will not happen, partly because some are not interested enough to ferret out the material, and others, who are interested, have such heavy teaching loads that they do not have the time or energy to spend looking up the material and organizing it. A formalized unit on peace given in teacher training courses will supply the teacher with material already organized and ready to teach. Teaching this unit is the province of the teachers colleges and the universities both private and public.

The unit on peace should create a background of

the peace and war question, giving references for further study, and should give specific ideas as to how the individual teacher can use the information. An example is seen in the newly created compulsory course in Safety Education required by many states. This course could easily culminate with a discussion of peace as a safety measure between nations. Many schools have orientation courses for their students and in these, after showing what harmony and working together does for the school, it is easy to show that friendly relations between nations promotes the progress of civilization. Social studies teachers can insert peace instruction in almost all the courses in this field, and much of the desultory peace education of today is given by them. Science teachers can use a plea for peace, by proving the results of science are only wasted if used destructively. Art and language teachers are already indirect advocates of peace because they give an understanding of the cultures of foreign nations. This could be changed to a direct teaching of peace by the addition of a small amount of material. These few illustrations show to a minor degree how peace teaching may be integrated into the various curricula.

The introduction of chairs or professorships on peace education is the next logical move in educating for peace. The material might be worked into a short unit of three or four weeks in length and introduced into different courses in such a manner that one

instructor could reach three or four different groups of student teachers a semester. The schedule might even be arranged so that when student teachers of science were studying subject matter which would lead to a discussion of peace then they would receive that instruction, and when student history teachers were studying materials favorable for the introduction of peace then they would receive that instruction. The experienced teacher could receive training by talks and panel discussions in teacher institutes, courses in summer schools, and through International Relations Institutes such as are held in several of our uni-

versities and colleges during the summer vacations.

What can peace societies do to help? They can advocate putting peace instruction courses in the public colleges and universities and by obtaining endowments for chairs and professorships on peace teaching to be established in private schools. This is in addition to the valuable aid they are giving at present to such worth while endeavors as International Clubs and Institutes. These have performed great services in the past but the future requires tremendous expansion of peace instruction and the best way to accomplish this is to train the teacher.

The Youth Forum As a Means of Teaching Civics

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The modern idea of education demands that the pupil should think for himself. His education must develop the technique of finding out things for himself, rather than as of old, of having certain factual material given him.

The modern youth forum is an instrument admirably suited to the modern educator. The panel type of forum, with student forum leaders, has been a favorite device in our school for teaching civics by this laboratory method. It implies the opportunity of the pupil to work out for himself how he can be a contributor to the class in a fact-finding method of learning. The preparation of the forum leader begins in the classroom where all pupils are made familiar with the idea that the forum is a discussion rather than an argument. Children are taught the technique of the various types of forum: the panel, the one speaker, and the discussion.

In preparation for a general school forum, all classes have forums on the same subject to arouse general school thinking on the subject chosen. From the class forums pupils who show ability as forum-leaders are selected. All likely leaders are heard by impartial judges. A panel with a moderator is selected from class representatives.

Special care is taken to secure as a "moderator," a student with a grasp of the whole subject. He must have a knowledge of parliamentary law and be possessed of poise and forcefulness.

It has been our plan to have four on a panel, two or more viewpoints are taken, more often for and against. It is advisable not to have more than 400 in the audience, and we divide our school into no larger groups with great success, although the student

body is a large one, numbering about 1600 students.

Each panel participant is given six minutes to present his viewpoint. It has been advisable to assign a teacher to each two speakers to help them with the subject and to aid them in some of the graces of presentation. After the leaders have presented their viewpoints, the listening audience is permitted to ask questions for about twenty minutes. For the first forums, we planted a few questions, but soon the pupils were so interested, such questions were not necessary.

The moderator repeats each question so that the entire audience may understand it. He is held responsible for ruling out foolish, or irrelevant questions. The person asking the question designates the panel leader at which his question is directed.

A very effective type of forum is the one speaker type. An invitation is given to an outstanding citizen to speak to the students on a given subject for a limited period, and a short period following is allowed for student questions. This type of forum should come after the pupils are familiar with forum methods. Appended is a test given an hour after this type of forum. The test was also given a day later. There was not much variation in the level of answers. The tests showed that there was listening interest, broadly distributed, and that this interest was rather remarkably retained. The ability to enter into coöperate discussion is a by-product of factual knowledge obtained through the forum-method of teaching, but it is probably much more important than the knowledge learned.

Wholesale initiative is, of course, developed by the discussion method. An interesting aside is seen

in the development of a lay gallery to the student forum. Parents, finding their children deeply interested in a question being discussed in a large school—particularly a subject pertaining to present-day problems and attitudes—have often become as interested as the pupils. The discussions result as much from local folk-attitude as from available cut-and-dried published opinion in our best student forum discussions.

The forum method seems to some of us perhaps a solution of some for the so-called difficulties of "academic freedom"; discussion develops an attitude of open-minded attention to questions of mooted content. However, we feel that it is inadvisable to attempt a forum on any subject that the whole community might feel inclined to reject. The subject matter of the forum, particularly touching common community interest, should lie closely parallel to such interest, always avoiding argument, while promoting clear, cool-headed discussion. Such discussion is usually followed by enough emotional response on the part of the audience to enter into private discussion later. Thus school civics and history courses are greatly vitalized.

ONE-SPEAKER FORUM

A representative of a large department store in Atlanta talked on careers and vocations at one of our one-speaker forums. The following are a few of the questions the pupils asked about possible employment with this firm:

"Is there any vacation?"

"How much will this job pay?"

"Is there group insurance?"

"Are there any promotions?"

"Are working conditions sanitary?"

Some of the pupils expressed what they received from the discussion as follows:

"I got an idea about how you have to apply for a job, the education required, the pay, the hours, the promotions, and health required."

"He said that one must know his business, be an expert, come with the determination to do something, have get up and go."

"He said that if a boy was dressed in overalls he could come as near getting a job as one having on nice clothes. One's finger nails should be clean, hands should be clean, and one's hair combed."

"You have to be sixteen years of age to work there. You don't have to know how to do a particular thing. They show you how to do it. And you can work and get promotions."

TEST

Civics Low Ninth Grade

Name

1. Give the name of the gentleman who made the talk on careers and occupations this morning
.....
2. is the concern for which he works.
3. His suggestions would cause one to think that it is best to finish and if possible.
4. He said, "You get credit for what you and not for what you begin."

Explain the following:

5. Paid vacation.
6. Group insurance.
7. Sick pay.
8. Profit sharing.
9. Discount on purchases.
10. Promotion within system.
11. Aptitude tests.
12. Temperament and its effect in business.
13. Apply for a job alone.
14. "Don't lose your intelligence while getting an education."
- 15-20. Write six good questions relating to possible employment at the concern represented this morning.

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

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THE EDUCATIONAL OUTLOOK

A few years ago the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators created the Educational Policies Commission to guide educational leadership in reshaping the public-school program. During the last three years

this Commission has published three monographs on the broad field of education in American democracy and has two yet to complete. At the same time five studies have appeared and only two remain on special phases of the general field. In the *Journal of the National Education Association* for November the

highlights of the three monographs are summarized under the heading, "A New Outlook on Educational Policy."

The monograph on *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy* emphasizes what American leaders have stressed again and again, namely, the close connection between education and government in a democracy and the need for free, universal, public education as insurance for the safety of democratic government and as an instrument for safeguarding and enlarging the culture of an enlightened civilization. "Wielding no weapons of sheer power, claiming no pomp and circumstance of state, education nourishes the underlying values upon which state and society depend for their existence—values which outlast transformations in the working rules of government and economy, and offer promises of humane reconstruction in times of crisis and threatened dissolution." Education in a democracy, accordingly, requires (1) the highest type of leadership in positions of responsibility in the schools, (2) freedom to search for and disseminate truth in classroom and community on a basis of equality with leaders in other institutions, and (3) freedom from partisan political controls.

The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy points to the need for a system of free schools extending from the nursery school through the junior college. In a number of communities such systems are being organized, falling into three divisions. The first is a unit including the nursery school and the kindergarten and extending through the present sixth grade. In this unit the emphasis is laid upon the mastery of the tools of learning by means of basic subject matter. The second unit comprises four years of secondary education, covering grades seven to ten. Here general education is stressed. The third unit is made up of grades eleven to fourteen, including both those students who will leave school at the end of the junior college and those who will go on to the university.

The basis of pupil classification is being broadened, and age is no longer the principal standard. Physical, intellectual, and social maturity is used to classify children on the elementary level. On the secondary level the needs of youth with differing interests and outlooks are transforming the curriculums, reorganizing traditional subject matter, and extending vocational training, in order to aid all youth up to eighteen or twenty years of age.

The Purposes of Education in American Democracy suggests what the schools of America should try to accomplish. Our system of schools was founded upon the ideals of the promotion of the general welfare, the preservation of civil liberty, government by the consent of the governed, the appeal to reason and not to force and violence, and the pursuit of hap-

piness. These ideals can be realized through the instrumentalities of knowledge, skill, habit, interest, and attitude. They may be developed through four major purposes of education: education for self-realization, for human relationships, for economic efficiency, and for civic responsibility.

These monographs may be secured directly from the Educational Policies Commission (1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.), for fifty cents each.

An older study, limited to secondary education, is now drawing to a close. In this department, on several occasions, reference has been made not only to the work of the Educational Policies Commission but also to that of the Commission on the Relation of School and College which the Progressive Education Association set up in 1930. In the *Educational Research Bulletin* for November 16, 1938 (Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio), the chairman of the Commission, Wilford M. Aikin, reports on the eight-year study. He describes how it was born and organized, what its purposes and methods have been, and what it has achieved.

In the same issue Harold B. Alberty reports on the "Development of Core Curriculums," in connection with the work of the thirty schools which took part in the eight-year study. After sketching the principal features of core-curriculum development, he shows that there is a careful searching for new forms to fulfil the purposes of education that came to the fore during the study. He lists the criteria upon which a core curriculum should be based and the types of approach for such a curriculum, as they have been tried out in various schools. The main types which he found are the culture-epoch approach, the contemporary-problem approach, the adolescent-needs approach and its "source units" dealing with . . . areas of adolescent needs," and the pupil-teacher planned core curriculum which aims to develop interests and needs of pupils and serves as an instrument of guidance.

With regard to the social studies themselves, S. P. McCutchen reviews the principal procedures attempted in the field under the eight-year study. He states that some who used the contemporary-problem approach have sought by observation and analysis of the world about them to determine "the important areas of human activity or the crucial and persistent problems of living." Others have tried to decide what elements are common to all cultures, as is exemplified in Marshall and Goetz' *Curriculum Making in the Social Studies* (Part XIII of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association). Yet others made their approach by searching for the elements common to the many great studies of social life from Plato's *Repub-*

lic to the Lynds' *Middletown*. From these common elements they have mapped out the major areas of human activity and used them as the basis of a curriculum. These major areas were found to be "protecting life and health, making a home, conserving and improving material conditions, cooperating in social and civic action, getting a living, securing an education, expressing religious impulses or aesthetic impulses, and engaging in recreation." On each grade level, by emphasizing the same elements in culture from ancient times to the present, pupils come to see how others faced and tried to solve problems like those the living face today.

Many have forsaken the chronological approach for the contemporary-problem approach. Others have sought by an "experience curriculum" to increase the social sensitivity of pupils, to broaden interests, and to provide "an intelligent, experiential basis upon which to reach decisions." To afford practice in applying decisions, schools are seeking fields of application in all sorts of school activities: athletics, clubs, shops, student government, and the like, and out-of-school activities in the community at large. It is evident that such a social studies curriculum requires more than the few social studies commonly taught, calling, for instance, for the study of family relations, consumer economics, and international relations.

There remains the problem of what the student shall do and study outside the requirements of the core curriculum. This problem has had to wait, and no satisfactory solution will be supplied while the core curriculum holds the center of attention.

FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Classes studying the subject of public opinion will be interested in James H. Spingarn's "These Public-Opinion Polls," which appeared in *Harper's Magazine* for December. Mr. Spingarn takes the reader behind the scenes and shows him how the method works. After a brief summary of the history of such polls, he explains the way the polls by *Fortune* and the American Institute of Public Opinion (the Gallup Poll) are managed. He surveys the difficulties both of framing questions satisfactorily and of securing an accurate sampling and concludes with an appraisal of the method.

In *The Congressional Digest* for November appears a many-sided discussion of the sales tax: what it is, where it is used, types of sales taxes in the several states, the purposes of such taxes, and the arguments pro and con. In view of the use of this tax and the debate upon it, this analysis and study is timely. To round out the discussion, there is included a summary of the nation's taxing power, of the taxes imposed under it, of the governmental organization charged with collecting taxes, and of the

national collections and expenditures for 1937-1938.

High-school students will find the November issue of *Fortune* attractive. Of especial interest are the long articles on the "Industrial South," the study of the members of "The So-Called Monopoly Committee," the analysis of the use and conservation of our energy resources ("Energy Sources"), and the description of the "American Medical Association." This issue also includes the sixteenth "Fortune Survey" and another in the series on "Business-and-Government."

METHODS

Writing on "The Psychology of Functional Education" in *Educational Method* for November, Professor C. C. Crawford describes further the method which he and his colleagues have been using with success, the functional approach (see this department in *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* for last month, under the heading, "The Teacher's Walk and Conversation"). Following the description, Professor Crawford discusses the psychological bases underlying the method. These are eight in number: (1) The method is motivated. It sets up stresses in the student and provides goals of accomplishment within the reach and interest of the learner. (2) It provides for teacher stimulation. The teacher, like a good chef, is challenged to tempt the mental appetites of pupils. (3) It makes good use of difficulty, frustration, or thwarting. (4) It provides for learning by doing. (5) Its units of learning correspond to the action patterns where learning is to function. The unit of learning is a unit of action; it begins with a pattern of action from which learning will flow. (6) It provides for thinking and knowing, but it uses them as guides for action. It provides this as an organic whole, after the teaching of the Gestalt psychology: there is the action-to-be-taken, thinking about ways and means, and knowing about what and how to act in order to reach the goal of action. (8) The method makes good use of dynamic attitudes; it provides "readiness-to-act" for future situations.

Professor Crawford is enthusiastic about the success he and his colleagues have had with the method. His accounts in the November issue of *Educational Method* and in the September 24 issue of *School and Society* are worth studying. It is not so much that there is anything new about the method, but the particular emphases will prove attractive to many teachers. He declares that his method is sanctioned both by Dewey's philosophy and Gestalt psychology. One can see in it also an echo of Kilpatrick's dictum that "We learn what we live, then live what we have learned."

Professor Paul H. Hanus, for so long an outstanding figure in the field of education and lately made professor emeritus at Harvard University, makes a plea in the November number of *The School Review*

for realistic teaching of government which will imbue pupils with "a strong and permanent approval of good government and a permanent militant aversion to bad" ("Realistic Teaching of Government and How to Get It"). Such teaching is especially desirable in the fields of local government and politics and state government and politics. It is true that in many places pressures, within and without the school system, prevent or at least limit such teaching. Yet a survey made by the American Institute of Public Opinion indicates that the lay public approves the realistic teaching of government and politics.

Professor Hanus advocates (1) that teachers' organizations everywhere, by resolutions and by other means, encourage such teaching, and (2) that the Constitution and framework of our democracy be taught to make clear its purposes as well as its machinery, including the contrast between democratic and the non-democratic forms of government.

By teaching what actually is done in politics and government and what the purposes and intents of democratic government are, the good in practical government is strengthened and the bad, brought to view, is earmarked and will be overcome. When the people, for example, no longer merely accepted witchcraft and the Ptolemaic System, they began to study them critically and they disappeared. To bring into the clear the defects of maladministration is the first step toward drying up their causes and breeding disapproval of that kind of government and a passionate desire for good government.

Professor Hanus proposes yet a third measure for securing realistic teaching of government. Steps, he says, should be taken to make such teaching safe for both the teacher and his superior officers. All sides of a question should be taught. The whole of the political problem should be seen. As a result the contrast between the actualities of practical politics in many places and the intent of our political system will become apparent, to the advantage of better government. Much bad government, he feels, is due more to persons than to the nature of political machinery. The light of publicity is cleansing. What are the actual facts of government? What are the actual consequences? It is not a matter of theorizing or of indoctrination, but it is a matter of scientific attitude and study. His discussion is provocative for teachers of the social studies.

THE CURRENT OF EVENTS

Central Europe and China continued to hold the center of attention as 1938 drew to a close. The major portion of *Events* for November was given over to a review of the international situation which should be very helpful to students of current affairs. Frederick L. Schuman suggested that Chamberlain's actions in the Czechoslovakian crisis flowed from the

policy of Britain's ruling class to strengthen fascism in Central Europe as a defense against Russian communism. The possibilities of the Russian menace, it is believed, are too easily underrated. To array fascism against communism, on more nearly equal military terms, is to insure British safety. Not all who contributed to the story of the European crisis agreed with this thesis, but it is one that is being frequently proposed.

To the group of articles in *Events* there should be added a series of three in the December issue of *Harper's Magazine*. Willson Woodside, writing on "The Road to Munich," surveys the events leading up to the conference, while Elmer Davis, writing on "The Road from Munich," points out its implications. The third article, by Major George Fielding Eliot, reveals the increasing need for national defense ("The Defense of America").

Mr. Woodside agrees with Mr. Schuman that communism has an important bearing upon the British Tory policy. Communism has become an *idée fixe* with the Conservatives, and fascism is the barrier that holds it back. Mr. Woodside quotes Professor Toynbee to show that the British policy of peace at any price must lead to disaster. War will come. While fascism ruling central Europe, with a great military power there, and perhaps with the British navy under German orders (!), war is likely between democratic North America and fascist Europe, with the intervening, weak, neutral, Anglo-French lands as the battle-ground, much as Belgium was during the World War. Better by far would it have been for Chamberlain to have followed the opposite policy and have championed moral principle and the rights of small nations. Sooner or later such a policy would have brought to Anglo-French aid the smaller nations of the world, the United States, and a revived League of Nations. Chamberlain's policy ended Franco-British dominance in Europe and made ascendant the Teutonic power.

Down the road from Munich, says Elmer Davis, one sees force as the ruler of the world, German force aided by the wealth of England who "will ransom London at any price. . . ." Germany, he declares, will demand, one by one, all the regions where Germans dwell, including regions in the Western Hemisphere. Would not England, he asks, be as willing to ransom London for Brazil as she was for Czechoslovakia? By implication, the policy of Chamberlain will result finally in war between the United States and Germany. Whether one cares to go this far or not, this inference brings one to Major Eliot's article which summarizes his recent book, *The Ramparts We Watch*.

To Major Eliot also, force rules and "the hope of peace by international agreement, by a reign of law and 'collective security' is dead," at least for the pres-

ent. He agrees that there is a very real danger of totalitarian expansion into the New World, and he says that the safety of the United States requires that she protect all of the Western Hemisphere. But, he is at great pains to show, this is not merely a military problem, but also an economic and political one. Moreover, the military problem is not primarily one of land and air forces, as nearly everyone believes, and as Congress seems to think. It is primarily a naval problem, as Britain's was before the invention of the airplane. Our oceans preclude the use of great land armies or of airplanes, without ships as convoys and bases. We suffer in our thinking from the fact that the World War was a land war, and we plan for the next, therefore, in the wrong terms.

He does not believe that we need to sacrifice our freedom to the extent that the Industrial Mobilization Plan contemplates. An adequate navy must be supported by a sufficiently strong defensive army and an air force, but the main line of offense will be ships. And ships do not need millions of men and thousands of cannon. For our democracy, volunteers are preferable to conscripted forces, and volunteers very likely would fill the modest man-power requirements of a navy. "We cannot bring peace to a warring world, but we can keep the peace of our own part of that world. We cannot settle the troubles of distant continents, but we can prevent the peoples of those continents from transporting their wars to the Western Hemisphere. We cannot shut ourselves off from every contact with other nations, but we can make sure that we command the seas which are the medium of those contacts—the seas which are our ramparts, and upon which we must stand our watch."

The menace of Germany to Asia is discussed in a series of articles in the December issue of *Asia*. These articles suggest that a Berlin-Tokyo axis is forming for Eurasia, similar to the Berlin-Rome axis for Europe. The recent successes of the German eastward drive in Europe and the decline of the strategic value of Gibraltar to Great Britain have made the Dardanelles the great strategic point along the British lifeline to the East. Peter F. Drucker, formerly foreign editor of the *Frankfurter General Anzeiger* and now American correspondent for several British newspapers, declares that Great Britain and Germany are now active rivals for a preferred position in Turkey. Great Britain has encouraged loans to Turkey, has acquiesced in the growth of Turkish nationalism, both political and economic, and has not strenuously opposed the curtailment of British control of Turkish economic resources under the nationalist drive. British trade has suffered. Germany, short of ready cash, has sought to strengthen her economic hold upon the East by exchanging capital goods for raw materials, taking such commodities as tobacco, oil, cotton, iron, and copper in exchange for Germany-made armament

and munitions, industrial equipment, road construction, and other products of German skill and technical knowledge.

Since the little nations of Middle Europe are not strong enough to restrain Germany, perhaps the small countries of Middle Asia can be strengthened sufficiently to serve that purpose. Such seems to be the British policy, in line with her need to safeguard her communications with the East. Mr. Drucker is of the opinion that every German success in Europe increases the importance of such control of communications for the British. The control of the Dardanelles, therefore, is likely to provide "the next fundamental issue in European 'realistic' power politics."

Sidelights on Mr. Drucker's "Britain's New Frontier in the Near East," especially on his thought that strong small nations are forming in Middle Asia, are shed in the same issue of *Asia* by such articles as Albert Viton's "Is It the End of Partition?" which Mr. Viton wrote from Palestine; "Arabs Don the Liberty Cap," by an anonymous Arab authority; Professor Howard's "Who Can Succeed Ataturk?"; H. St. J. B. Philby's interview with King Ibn Saud ("King Ibn Saud Speaks at Last"); and W. Lynndon Clough's "The Triumph of the Shah." In connection with this last-named article, John Gunther, writing in the December issue of *Harper's Magazine*, comments upon various phases of the drive of the Shah of Iran to modernize Persia ("King of Kings").

On the matter of the Berlin-Tokyo axis, *Asia* for December offers two complementary articles. The well-known correspondent William Henry Chamberlain discusses it in "The Anti-Communist Front" and Kurt Bloch in "The New Berlin-Tokyo Axis." They present an analysis of the strength of the Japanese-German entente. Both agree that Germany has retreated from her policy of economic penetration in China in favor of a strong entente with Japan. "Japan," says Mr. Chamberlain, "like Germany and Italy, considers itself a disinherited power, unfairly treated in the distribution of raw materials and colonial markets. It is seeking, in China, an outlet for its trade and investment as Italy is seeking new fields of exploitation in Spain and Abyssinia, as Germany is endeavoring to establish political and economic hegemony in the Valley of the Danube." Is this the keynote of fascist-Japanese policy, whether in Europe or in Asia, whether against Russia or the great colonial empires of Great Britain and France?

MONOPOLY INVESTIGATION

The editors of *Fortune*, in discussing the investigation of monopoly under the O'Mahoney Monopoly Inquiry Act in their November issue, said that more good would be accomplished by centering attention on the useful features of Big Business than by making the investigation a witch hunt for law violators. That

kind of investigation in the past has had too little lasting influence. In *Events* for November Charles A. Beard took much the same stand in his article on "American Politics and Business." He was not optimistic about the value of the projected investigation, fearing that it may turn out to be another attempt to revive the already dying horses of legitimate competition and a flexible price system. To conduct an investigation on the basis of *laissez faire* he believed was not worth while because prosperity can no longer be guaranteed by ruthless competition and flexible prices which hold production and exchange in equilibrium and keep the wheels of industry turning. It has not worked historically since colonial times, as our periodic economic crises prove. In fact, he declared, war and finance-capital speculation have been our real agents of prosperity. More will be gained from the new Industrial Expansion Bill, which Congress is to consider; than from monopoly investigations. Professor Beard concluded by summarizing the criticisms of the older economic assumptions and the new plan of attack upon our economic problems recently proposed by Adolph A. Berle, Jr.

SAVING OUR SOILS

Harriet Carter, in the November number of the *Journal of Geography*, presented a detailed and helpful outline of a unit on "Saving Our Soils." All phases of the subject which a high-school class would study were outlined and various kinds of supplementary material and a bibliography were included. Although the unit is worked out for a class in geography, much of the material will be useful for any class engaged in studying the subject of conservation of resources.

WINGS FOR THE MARTINS

On November 16, the Office of Education and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers launched a series of twenty-six broadcasts over the network of the National Broadcasting Company, on Wednesdays at 9:30 P.M., E.S.T. The series deals with everyday problems of education which confront the parents and teachers of the nation. The purpose of the series "is to help the public become better acquainted with American education in relation to the activities of young people and the home; to encourage community participation in improvement of education; and to offer guidance to those who have the responsibility of helping young people with their problems."

MEETINGS

The Social Science Section of the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education will devote its January meeting to the consideration of "The Role of the Foreign Languages in American Citizenship Training." The speakers will be Dr. Theodore Huebner, Acting Director of Foreign Languages for the New York City Public Schools, and Dr. Leonard Covello, Principal of the Benjamin Franklin High School in New York City.

Representatives of the social science and foreign language teachers associations will participate in the discussion.

This meeting will be held at the Commerce Building of C.C.N.Y. at 23rd Street and Lexington Avenue on Friday evening, January 13, at 8 P.M.

The final meeting of the current school year will be held on March 10, and will deal with "Democracy in Action in the Senior High Schools of New York City."

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by J. IRA KREIDER

Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

Power: A New Social Analysis. By Bertrand Russell. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1938. Pp. 305. \$3.00.

"Power," as used in the volume under discussion, has reference to the power of human beings. According to the author, power is to be regarded as a fundamental sociological concept somewhat as energy is a fundamental concept in physics. He believes that power, like energy, is undergoing transformation continuously. He seeks, therefore, to set forth the principles underlying such transformation.

Unquestionably, this work may be said to have

timeliness. Today the phenomenon of power is decidedly in the foreground and attention is directed anew to the doctrines of Nietzsche and Machiavelli. Men are inquiring why certain individuals and groups attain power and why, at the same time, other individuals and groups lose power.

In order to arrive at relevant conclusions regarding these matters, Bertrand Russell proceeds to illuminate the obscurities of various areas of thought. The desire for power is thus seen as the preponderant incentive in motivating human behavior. Even the desire for economic well-being is shown, in the final analy-

sis, to be the desire for power. From this viewpoint, Marxian theory appears to lack something of completeness. Only so far as power is predicated upon the possession of wealth are the economic determinists correct.

Xerxes, according to the author, had a plenitude of wealth and wives. Yet the Persian autocrat found other things to desire. There were matters of further prestige to be considered. So it came about that Xerxes launched the Athenian expedition.

In his chapter on "Revolutionary Power," the author reminds us that—"Until November, 1917, Liberalism had been combated only by reactionaries; Marxists, like other progressives, advocated democracy, free speech, free press, and the rest of the Liberal political apparatus." The soviet government, he continues, when it came into ascendancy, set about the establishment of an undemocratic dictatorship by means of the Red Army. Now it is apparent that "the rejection of Liberalism has had an extraordinary success. From the Rhine to the Pacific Ocean, all its chief doctrines are rejected almost everywhere; Italy first, and then Germany, adopted the political technique of the Bolsheviks; even in the countries that remain democratic, the Liberal faith has lost its fervor."

At this point Bertrand Russell might well have amplified his interpretation. There is no absolute freedom of speech or of the press anywhere, and any nation-wide democracy is unknown. And what is a liberal?

Rip Van Winkle may or may not have been a liberal. At any rate, following his twenty-year sleep, he took occasion to exclaim, "I am a loyal subject of the King, God bless him!" The American "liberals" thereupon became menacing in their attitude toward him, quite to the discomfiture of poor Rip. Freedom of speech still existed, even by constitutional provision. But fashions in speech-freedom had changed. Whereas the slogan, "God save the King and down with Samuel Adams," had been permissible—and liberal—"Up with the Republic and down with the King" was now the proper sentiment. Our Revolutionary Fathers banished approximately one hundred thousand Tories because these selfsame Loyalists insisted upon freedom of speech and action in harmony with standards which "power" had made obsolete. In times of national danger, rulers are never inclined to enlarge the scope of individual liberty.

In a later chapter, "Power over Opinion," the author presents material which might have been used in explanation of the disappearance of "liberalism" in certain countries as alleged in the chapter from which quotation has been made. Bearing in mind that fascism, Hitlerism, and communism are creeds, these observations are pertinent. "... A creed never had force at its command to begin with, and the first

steps in the production of a widespread opinion must be taken by persuasion alone.

"We have thus a kind of see-saw: first, pure persuasion leading to the conversion of a minority; then force exerted to secure that the rest of the community shall be exposed to the right propaganda; and, finally, a genuine belief on the part of the great majority, which makes the use of force again unnecessary. Some bodies of opinion never get beyond the first stage, some reach the second and then fail, others are successful in all three. . . . The Marxist creed has reached the second stage, if not the third, in Russia, but elsewhere is still in the first stage."

The titles of some of the eighteen chapters follow: "Priestly Power," "Kingly Power," "Naked Power," "Revolutionary Power," "Economic Power," "Power over Opinion," "Power Philosophies," and "The Taming of Power."

This book will immediately take its place on collateral reading lists for such subjects as sociology, social psychology, educational psychology, educational sociology, philosophy of education, and ethics.

J. F. SANTEE

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A History of Historical Writing. By Harry Elmer Barnes. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1937. Pp. xiii, 434. \$3.50.

The history of history is a story which may well be perused for its own sake. And it may be doubted whether the study of the evolution in time of any other branch of literature contributes so vitally to its true understanding and appreciation. That historians of different eras and schools have painted quite dissimilar pictures of man's past indicates clearly the subjective nature of much of our historical "knowledge," and these diversified interpretations are in many cases to be understood only in the light of the intellectual and social background against which they were produced. We can scarcely pretend to understand history without some knowledge of its genesis. Yet the literature upon the subject has been sadly inadequate. Excellent works upon limited phases are indeed available, but a single survey of the whole has been lacking.

To the filling of this need Harry Elmer Barnes now brings his versatile talents. The result is a readable and usable book of modest size which may not add to the knowledge of the expert, but will be welcomed by those who require a general survey. It is packed with information, but the author is generally successful in preserving a level well above that of the annotated bibliography, and historians and their works are presented with sufficient exposition to render them meaningful. The book is characteristic of the

SOCIAL LIFE AND PERSONALITY

By Bogardus and Lewis

"Marked by the stamp of a compelling personality," says one reviewer. "In the content," this reviewer continues, "students and teachers will find . . . a fund of basic information, well-organized and up-to-date, with adequate, interesting, clear graphs and pictures. It provides a sequence of broad topics elaborated with sufficient detail to give the student clear concepts and at the same time provokes thought on his part."

EVERYDAY ECONOMICS

By Janzen and Stephenson

The problems of the consumer—co-operatives—efforts of the government to solve the economic and social problems of the depression—the principles of insurance—installment buying. An understanding of such topics as these is a prerequisite to intelligent living in the world of today.

The revised edition of this text presents simple, unbiased discussions of these topics in addition to the clear-cut, forceful treatment of traditional economic practices and principles for which it is famous.

SILVER BURDETT COMPANY

New York

Boston

Chicago

San Francisco

author. It reflects his wide knowledge, his prodigious industry, his enthusiasm for the "new history," and his frankly materialistic approach. One may concede the general validity and usefulness of the last, and still feel that he is a little too sure that none other is admissible. Other criticisms might be made, of statements of fact, of expression of opinion, and of distribution of emphasis. They doubtless will be. But the fact remains that Professor Barnes has done another important piece of pioneering, and once again deserves the thanks of the devotees of history.

LEONIDAS DODSON

University of Pennsylvania
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The Daily Newspaper in America. The Evolution of a Social Instrument. By Alfred McClung Lee. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. 797. \$3.50.

Histories of American journalism have been content heretofore to relate a chronological story of the establishment of newspapers, give the details of their proprietorships, and perhaps note their distinctive features and journalistic triumphs. For the later years few writers have tried to do more than treat the large city dailies. The inadequacy of such treatment is the reason for the present work.

Restricting himself to the dailies, Dr. Lee not only gives a chronological story of their growth from the *Pennsylvania Evening Post* of Benjamin Towne, begun in 1775, but he presents a topical survey of all phases of their development and operation. He emphasizes the sociological importance of the press, its influence on the community, and the influences which control its policy. Technical details and procedures are explained to the satisfaction of the journalist as well as the layman, and the economic and financial aspects are given their undoubted significance. There is a wealth of facts and figures, including an appendix of thirty two tables, and enough anecdote and illustration to make interesting reading. In other words, this is a comprehensive and authoritative treatment of the daily press, which deserves the highest commendation.

It should be emphasized that this is not a compilation from a variety of secondary materials, but is a thorough work of research. Using the topical approach, Dr. Lee has described the changes due to technical development, "The Physical Basis"; he has analyzed the influence of "Labor" beginning with the early typographical societies, and the problems of "Ownership and Management." Here also are thorough studies of newspaper chains, syndicates and associations, methods of circulation, advertising, newsgathering, features, the editorial staff, and the

conflicts with society and government. The author has made a thorough survey of the extensive literature of his subject, as is evidenced by his bibliography and chapter documentation. His examples and illustrations are drawn from newspaper experience in all parts of the United States, including the smaller cities. He has selected his material with the view of illuminating issues, principles and policies; and he has not hesitated to take a liberal viewpoint. His book takes its place at once as an invaluable work of reference, and the best survey of American journalism yet produced.

MILTON W. HAMILTON

Albright College
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Men Must Work. By Loire Brophy. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1938. Pp. xi, 145. \$1.75.

Honesty. By Richard C. Cabot. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938. Pp. ix, 326. \$2.50.

Here are two books which will find a place in the libraries of colleges, secondary schools, and CCC camps. They will prove especially helpful as collateral readings in guidance and orientation courses.

The first-mentioned volume is the more simply written. Its colloquial English and its numerous anecdotes will recommend it to many. While this is what might be termed a companion volume to *If Women Must Work* by the same author, women and girls may read this more recent production with profit. Getting and holding a job is principally the theme. Of particular worth are Chapter VI, "The Approach by Letter," and Chapter VII, "The Interview." Emphasis is placed upon the value of optimism, of perseverance, of doing well the task in hand, of self-appraisal, of knowing the job, of knowing more than the job, of the employer's viewpoint, and of the long-range perspective. Older readers, particularly, will be interested in Chapter IX, "How to Hurdle the Forties." Worthy of mention is the forty-three page Appendix, "Trade, Class, and Technical Magazines."

The second title appearing above is that of a treatise on ethics. This does not imply, however, that the subject-matter is uninteresting. In fact, the reader will find scarcely a dull page. Certain chapters are devoted to the relationships existing between honesty and problems of government, industry, science, education, medicine, social work, art, and religion. Valuable material is presented in the third and final section of the book, "Philosophy of Honesty."

The author has displayed much skill in bringing his topic down from the cloudland of idealism to the realm of practical reality. Honesty is shown to be the paramount virtue, the great cohesive force of society. Without it, all human groups would disinte-

grate. Institutions are built upon trust. Dishonesty succeeds only because the majority of persons are honest.

Dr. Cabot's line of reasoning may be judged from the following quotation: "Dishonesty is war disguised for a time as peace, and the disguise is only as effective as previous honesty has made it." And again—"Dishonesty cuts the arteries by which social life is nourished. Mutual deceit is social murder. Self-deceit cuts the blood vessels of one's own existence." Lecturers may well have recourse to this volume.

J. F. SANTEE

Oregon Normal School
Monmouth, Oregon

The History of Ethnological Theory. By Robert H. Lowie. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1937. Pp. xiii, 296. \$3.00.

This important volume fills a long recognized gap in social science literature. Although of primary interest to anthropologists it answers the wish of all interested in the broader and comparative aspects of the various social sciences for a compact description and evaluation of the contributions of such prominent theorists, past and present, as Bastian, McLennan, Morgan, Tyler, Ratzel, Boas, Durkheim, Malinowski, etc. None is better able than Professor Lowie to ascertain the significant views of these men, to discuss critically the basic and lasting importance of their efforts and to interpret the effect of their influence on contemporary thought. This difficult and delicate task is accomplished with carefully weighed criticisms and a sympathy for the problems and scope of interest of each writer. Contemporary trends and interests in field investigations and theoretical discussions are treated in an important final chapter entitled "Retrospect and Prospect." This book should enjoy widespread acclaim.

D. S. DAVIDSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

A History of Mexico. By Henry Bamford Parkes. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1938. Pp. xii, 432. Illustrated, Maps. \$3.75.

With books of travel and description on Mexico appearing with monotonous regularity for the past three years it was inevitable that a history of the country should eventually be written. Certainly the need for an up-to-date history of Mexico to supplement those by Priestley and Gruening, has been felt for some time. This volume should therefore be eagerly welcomed by those who give courses on Mexican affairs, as well as by the general public, who read so many articles in their daily papers about good Mexican roads and bad Mexican diplomacy.

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Dr. Parkes is a professor in New York University. He has based his work on years of study of the Mexican people and their history. With an admirable sense of proportion the author divides his work into nine periods: Indian Mexico, The Spanish Conquest, The Colony of New Spain, The War of Independence, The Age of Santa Anna, The Reform, The Reign of Díaz, The Revolution, and The Period of Reconstruction. Within each period are several chapters treating pertinent topics in chronological order. The whole panorama of Mexican history is thus logically unfolded, making the book well suited as a college text. The illustrations are numerous and carefully selected. An excellent bibliography, two maps, and a serviceable index add greatly to the usefulness of the work. The author has caught the spirit of Mexican history; he is to be congratulated on his ability to present a difficult subject in so interesting and effective a fashion.

A. CURTIS WILGUS

The George Washington University
Washington, D.C.

The American Race Problem. By Edward B. Reuter, New York: T. Y. Crowell Company, 1938. Pp. 350. \$3.00.

The recognition of America's major racial question passed out of the prophylactic stage with the begin-

ning of 1863, but only since the World War has public attention been focused on the handling or mis-handling of the situation. No apology is needed, even in our wealth of information, for the presentation of the facts as given in this textbook. Amelioration of labor conditions for one-tenth of our population does not lend itself to long-range arm chair philosophy. The author proves his understanding of the subject in an early chapter when he points out the difficult transition from a dependent economic status to an independent political one. This acclimation is the crux of the story.

Any text, offering comparative studies, especially in the field of finance, as in the relative costs of education, is liable to paint a gloomy picture of the minority; but the truth is preferable even if it hurts. These pessimistic figures might have been offset by a chapter on recent successful leaders of the race and their achievements. Negro progress in the matter of literacy alone, has far outstripped their white benefactors since the Civil War. This factor ranks with the great exodus to the north two decades past as reasons for demanding the attention and national solution of the majority.

The chapter on family life will dissipate forever any illusory hangover begotten by the "mammy" type, Foster or Mrs. Howe; for that generation is gone. Some communities have done something in the matter

of helping the youth, and this might have been included in the section on delinquency. Intermarriage will not solve the question, as the author believes, nor will an African empire; but it is agreed that the bigots of superstition, intolerance and prejudice will be eliminated when inspired national leadership is divorced from geographical, political and religious differences.

ROALD OLIVER

Newtown, Pennsylvania

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

Story of Civilization. By Carl L. Becker, and Frederic Duncalf. New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1938. Pp. xxvi, 844. \$2.40.

If the truth were known it is seldom that a reviewer really enjoys reading a textbook from cover to cover. However, in this case the task was a delightful one because the book represents an exceptional piece of work. Its authors have unquestionably caught the sweep and the majesty of civilization's development and have presented it in a scholarly and delightfully refreshing fashion.

The organization of the book is traditional. It is set up in terms of five units—which incidentally are not units in the Morrisonian sense—entitled The Earliest Civilizations, Greek and Roman Civilization, The Beginnings of Modern Civilization, Modern Civilization: Political and Social Revolution, Modern Civilization: Industrial Revolution. The first three of these are entirely new; the last two represent a revision of parts of Dr. Becker's *Modern History*. However, it is not the organization of the book which attracts so much as it is the lucid style, the fine presentation of detail, the pertinent illustrations (eight of which are of the full page variety and richly colored), the stimulating questions for individual and group discussion, the intelligent suggestions for reports and notebooks, and the inclusion of selected and classified references at the end of each chapter. Likewise, the map supplement in the back of the text will be of great assistance to students, particularly in those schools where atlas material is not plentiful.

In the opinion of this reviewer the high-lights of the book, so far as the handling of content is concerned, are the presentation of the medieval period and the treatment of the French Revolution. Few high school texts, if any, do a better job with these two eras of world history.

On the other hand, there are certain features and characteristics of the text which prevent one from giving it any all-embracing or blanket approval. The vocabulary, for example, will undoubtedly prove to be difficult for many students, particularly in view of the fact that the text will find its widest usage in ninth and tenth year classes. Similarly, there has been little

stress, as such, on cause and effect or upon the interrelationships of world events. This is not such a serious matter when one is writing for older students, but represents an important consideration when presenting material to ninth and tenth year groups. However, the most obvious weakness of this, as well as of most high school world history texts, is its failure, in any consistent way, to link world events and their implications to the development of our own country. This is an approach which is much needed at present, and in the reviewer's opinion is necessary if any real measure of widespread student interest in world history ever is to be developed.

Yet, notwithstanding the above criticisms—criticisms which might be levelled at practically all high school world history texts—*Story of Civilization* deserves a wide hearing.

F. MELVYN LAWSON

Sacramento Senior High School
Sacramento, California

Our America: Today and Yesterday. By F. Melvyn Lawson and Verna Kopka Lawson. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1938. Pp. 785. Illustrated. \$2.00.

In the opinion of the reviewer, this is one of the finest social studies books ever written for high school students. It is not simply a history book, as the name may suggest, but rather a well organized combination of sociology, civics, economics, and history. The content may best be explained by quoting from the preface in which the authors state that "the book begins with the student and reveals to him those most easily recognized social institutions of which he is a part—his home, his school and his local community. From thence it expands his knowledge and understanding of social institutions by showing him his relationship to state, national, and international organizations. And always there is kept before him the fact that for each of the privileges he enjoys as an active, recognized member of these various groups, there is a corresponding, attendant responsibility. An understanding of this all-important, reciprocal relationship between the individual and his social institutions is truly the key to successful group living."

There are many drawings in the text and excellent photographic reproductions at the end of the book. These have been chosen with great care and there is a thought provoking question under each drawing and picture. The Photographic Supplement at the end of the book is really "a brief presentation of the entire text in graphic form, from pictures of the early voyagers to those illustrating the vital economic and social questions facing America to-day." The language of the text is adapted to the reading ability of most boys and girls in high school. The book is enriched

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BETTY McCORD

Darby Senior High School
Darby, Pennsylvania

History of England. By George Macaulay Trevelyan. New and enlarged edition. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1937. Pp. xxii, 756. \$4.00. Part III is published separately. Pp. 505-746. \$1.75.

This second edition of a work that has gone through ten printings since its appearance in 1926 is not exactly a revision of the earlier book. The text is substantially the same, with the bibliographies at the end of each chapter brought down to date. However, Trevelyan has greatly enhanced the value and usefulness of his *History* by adding four chapters, in place of the original Epilogue, carrying the story down to 1919. Part III (From 1714 to the Present Day), which contains the new material, is bound and sold separately for the benefit of those who already possess the original edition. In view of the stimulating and original character of the writing, perhaps it is unfortunate that the additional

chapters stop at the close of the war, failing to reveal Trevelyan's views of contemporary history. Still, many recent texts and histories which attempt to chronicle everything down to the latest trans-Atlantic flight have demonstrated the wisdom of going no further than the historical cement has hardened.

OSCAR G. DARLINGTON

Hofstra College of New York University
Long Island, New York

Our Country and Our People: An Introduction to American Civilization. By Harold Rugg. New York: Ginn and Company, 1938. Pp. 591. \$1.88.
Changing Countries and Changing People: An Introduction to World Geography with Historical Backgrounds. By Harold Rugg. New York: Ginn and Company, 1938. Pp. 586. \$1.88.

These are new editions of textbooks for the Rugg Social Studies Course for the Junior High School. *Our Country and Our People* deals with the economic and social life of the United States today. In the first two units the pupil gets a clear conception of "What is America?" and "Who Are the Americans?" He learns some of the problems which Americans in the past have faced as well as current problems of Americans. Rugg gives a clear and definite picture of early Americans so that there is developed a tolerant under-

standing of other nationalities and races. This provides a background for the more advanced problems of social studies that each pupil must encounter as he advances.

In comparing the revised edition with *An Introduction to American Civilization* there are marked improvements. The vocabulary in *Our Country and Our People* is simplified to meet seventh grade levels. Sentences are less complex. Paragraphs are shorter. The fundamental concept of each chapter is repeated as the pupil continues so that there should be no doubt in the pupil's mind as to what was the main idea presented in each chapter. There has been a marked shift in emphasis. The former book was primarily concerned with the mechanics of the changes brought about by the Industrial Revolution. In the revision the primary concern is with the peoples who make up America and of their reactions to the changes of the last one hundred and fifty years.

Changing Countries and Changing Peoples takes typical industrial, agricultural, or industrial-agricultural countries and shows what effect the Industrial Revolution has had and is having upon that particular country. It also discusses the dependability of that particular country upon the rest of the world. There is an abundance of illustrative material—maps, graphs, and pictures. The maps especially are improved in the revised edition. As in all of the Rugg books, the point of view is that of the liberal who believes in progress and the possibility of orderly change. The broad purpose is to give pupils a flexible outlook and encourage a tolerance toward divergent views.

GRACE DAVIS

Junior High School,
Abington, Pennsylvania

BOOK NOTES

By Wagon and Flatboat. By Enid La Monte Meadowcroft. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1938. Pp. 170. Illustrated. \$2.00.

This is written by a charming story teller and teacher of children. The story has an exciting plot and is based on historical documents. In the year 1789 the Burd family move from eastern Pennsylvania in a Conestoga wagon to Pittsburgh and thence on a flatboat down the Ohio River. The three children in the party have adventures with Indians and other pioneers on their way to the town which was to become Cincinnati where they make their home. The characters are real and the reader follows eagerly their interests and activities. It is for boys and girls from nine to twelve years of age.

French Canada: Pictures and Stories. By Hazel Boswell. New York: The Viking Press, 1938. Pp. 82. Illustrated. \$2.00.

This pleasing little book of stories and color drawings is of interest to children, young people, and adults. It is of the life and country around Quebec, a place that is different. The author's family came to Canada long ago and she has inherited the tradition of many generations. She has studied art, written, and done educational work. She shows us by story and picture the caleche, the dog derby, the Island of Orleans, the curé, the saw mill, the oven, hooked rugs, weaving and spinning, Chateau Frontenac, and other phases of the life and the country of French Canada. Books such as this help the pupil to find real enjoyment in history and geography.

The Governments of Europe. By William Bennett Munro. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1938. Pp. ix, 856. Maps and Charts. \$4.00.

Since 1925 Professor Munro's textbook has been well known both for its scholarship and its style. This work is now in its third edition. Designed for college students in this country, most of the attention is given to Great Britain. Half of the book is taken up with a description of the government of that country, one-quarter is on France, and the rest has groups of chapters on the governments of Germany, Italy, and Russia. The two concluding chapters are given over respectively to Switzerland, Scandinavian kingdoms, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, and to the government of Japan.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

You and Your Lawmakers. By Barbara Marx and Elizabeth Whiting. November 15, 1938 issue of *Social Action*. Council for Social Action, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York City. 10 cents.

Brief but comprehensive description of the composition, organization, procedures, and activities of Congress, and its relation to the executive and judicial branches of the government. Includes a briefer, similar account of state legislatures, and suggestions for improving the legislative process and making citizens more aware of their responsibilities. Discussion outlines and a bibliography are appended.

America Looks Abroad. By Frederick L. Schuman and George Soule. World Affairs Pamphlets, No. 3 (August, 1938). Foreign Policy Association, 8 W. 40 Street, New York City. 25 cents.

Presents policies for promoting peace and programs for averting war.

Partition of Czechoslovakia. By Paul B. Taylor. November 15, 1938 issue of *Foreign Policy Reports*. Foreign Policy Association, 8 W. 40 Street, New York City. 25 cents.

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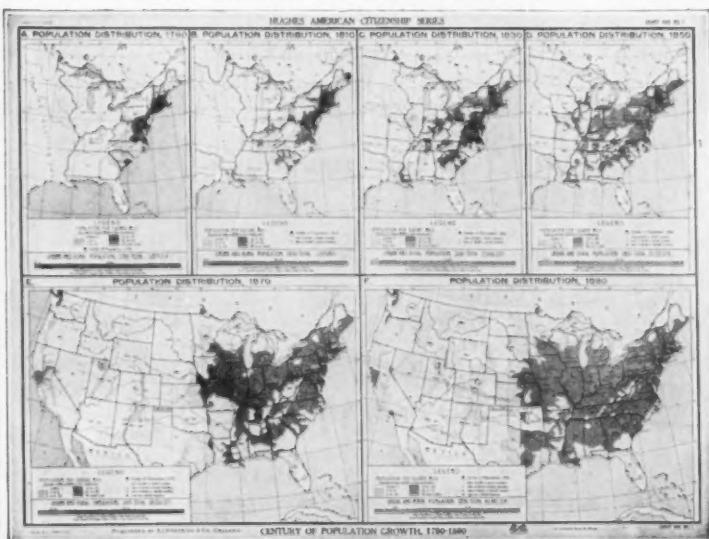
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Czechoslovakia from February to October 1938, with a brief sketch of the historical background since the World War.

Landmarks of Economic Thought. By John M. Ferguson. Longmans, Green and Company. New York, 1938. \$1.00.

A survey of economic thought from ancient times to the present.

Crisis in Czechoslovakia. International Conciliation, No. 344 (November, 1938). Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 405 W. 117 Street, New York City. 5 cents.

English translations of official documents and public addresses and announcements from the principal nations concerned, from April 24 to September 27, 1938.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

The Blue-Eyed God. By Francis Rotch. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, 1938. Pp. 311. \$2.50.

The story of the adventures of Xtli, a Toltec boy.

By Wagon and Flatboat. By Enid La Monte Meadowcroft. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1938. Pp. 170. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A story for boys and girls of a family which moved to the west in 1789.

Coöperatives in America: Their Past, Present and Future. By Ellis Cowling. New York: Coward-McCann, Inc., 1938. Pp. xvii, 206. \$2.00.

A friendly discussion of the coöperative movement.

French Canada: Pictures and Stories. By Hazel Boswell. New York: The Viking Press, 1938. Pp. 82. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Stories of the life and country around Quebec, illustrated with excellent color drawings.

A History of American Foreign Relations. By Louis Martin Sears. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1938. Pp. xiv, 728. \$3.50.

A new printing of the third edition, with a new chapter, "Foreign Affairs and the New Deal."

An Illustrated History of Modern Europe, 1789-1938. By Denis Richards. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1938. Pp. xv, 334. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A political history of continental Europe for secondary school use, by an English author.

March of the Iron Men: A Social History of Union

through Invention. By Roger Burlingame. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1938. Pp. xvi, 500. Illustrated. \$3.75.

A documented narrative of trends of technological invention in the United States.

Our Country. By James A. Woodburn and Howard C. Hill. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1938. Parts 1, 2, 3. Pp. 270, 276, 292. Illustrated. Each \$1.08.

Junior high school textbooks for United States history.

Penn. By Elizabeth Janet Gray. New York: The Viking Press, 1938. Pp. 298. \$2.50.

A life of William Penn for young people.

Physical Geography and Geology. By L. Dudley Stamp. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1938. Pp. 256. \$1.75.

Attempts to show the relationships of geology and biology with geography.

Problems in Economic Geography. By Douglas E. Ekblaw. New York: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1938. Pp. xiii, 203. Paper Cover. \$1.00.

A workbook in the field of economic geography.

Rebels in Bondage. By Ivy Bolton. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1938. Pp. ix, 234. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A story of old Albany for young people.

Red Sky Over Rome. By Anne D. Kyle. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1938. Pp. 260. \$2.00.

The setting of this novel for young people is Rome during the Italian Revolution of 1849.

The Refugee in the United States. By Harold Fields. New York: Oxford University Press, 1938. Pp. 229. \$2.50.

A survey of the problem of the refugee in the United States since the close of the World War.

Roads to a New America. By David Cushman Coyle. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1938. Pp. xiv, 390. \$2.75.

A consideration of the values and potentialities of America and the ways by which the good of our country may be promoted.

Room to Swing a Cat. By Frederick J. Bell. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1938. Pp. 271. Illustrated. \$3.00.

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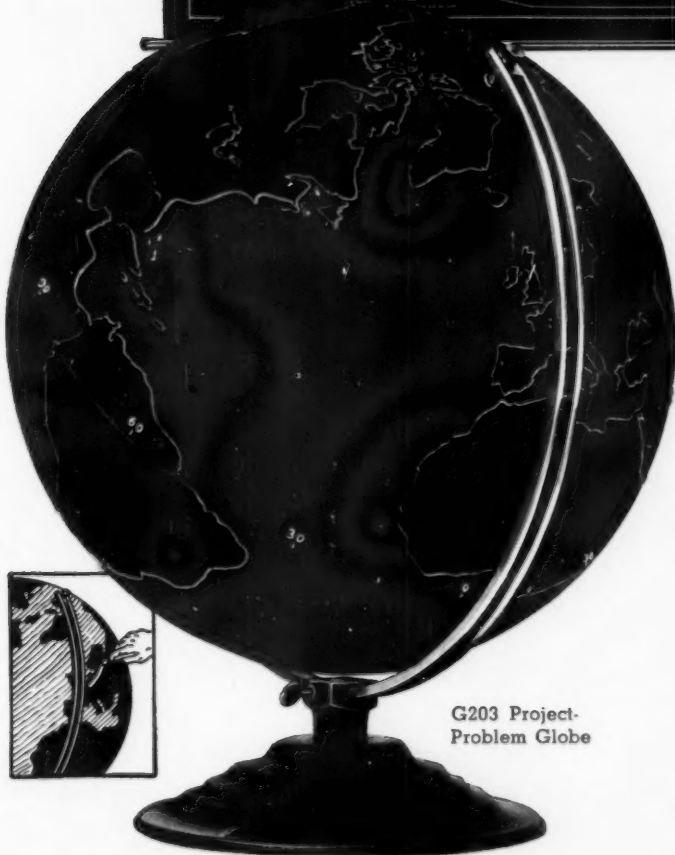
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